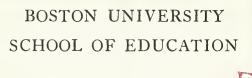
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BOSTON UNIVERSITY SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Service Paper

AN EXPERIMENT IN THE TEACHING OF PLANE GEOMETRY

COMPARING

THE FORMAL METHOD WITH THE INFORMAL METHOD

Submitted by

John William Jacobs

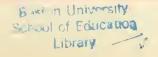
(B.S. in E.E., Northeastern University, 1932)
(B.S. in Ed., Bridgewater State Teachers College, 1937)

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Education

1949



School of Education Cd. 11, 1949 31508 First Reader: Henry W. Syer, Assistant Professor of Education

Second Reader: Donald D. Durrell, Professor of Education



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INTRODUCTION

Do students of plane geometry show a greater achievement as measured by standardized tests when taught by the formal method or when taught by the informal method?

method and informal method will have to be carefully defined. When the idea for this paper was first presented to the seminar group, the title read as follows: An Experiment in Teaching Plane Geometry Using the Traditional Method versus the Postulational Method. The traditional method was defined as consisting of units of work where the formal proof of theorems was required before they could be used in proofs of original exercises. The postulational method was defined as assuming or postulating the proof of theorems required to prove the original exercises of the unit.

After much discussion, it was decided that less confusion would result if the terms traditional method and postulational method were changed to formal method and informal method. Formal method will be defined as the method of teaching plane geometry by requiring the learning or committing to memory of formal proofs of theorems for reproduction before attempting to use them in

the solution of original exercises. In the informal method the proofs of certain basic theorems which are essential to the proof of other theorems and the nature of their proof is such that an artificial method such as superposition or indirect proof is required will be postulated. Understanding of the theorems will be gained by intuitive, informative, experimental, or inductive teaching. The use of all of the terms is practically synonymous, and the authorities in the field recommend that the word "informal" be used.

Comparison of the results obtained by two groups of plane geometry students of approximately equal ability taught by the two methods defined in the previous paragraphs should tend to influence the type of course to be given and perhaps the textbook to be used.

This study will be set up as an experiment with two groups equated as to mental maturity by the California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity. 1

The two groups were tested halfway through the course and again at the end of the course. The gain or loss between half-year achievement and the final achievement for each group were compared to see if any significant difference could be determined.

L/Elizabeth T. Sullivan, Willis W. Clark, and Ernest W. Tiegs, California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity, Advanced S-Form, (California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, 1939)

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CHAPTER I

PREVIOUS INVESTIGATION IN THE FIELD

There appear to be no readily available studies which attempt to prove experimentally that a theorem a day is not the way to teach plane geometry.

In arriving at this conclusion, the writer first examined the card catalogue files of theses in the Boston University School of Education Library. This examination revealed how few theses in the field of mathematics and particularly in plane geometry were available. It was my good fartune, however, to discover that my seminar adviser, Professor Henry W. Syer, had recently compiled an extensive list of theses in the field of mathematics which are to be found in the libraries of schools and colleges all over the United States. This list covered a period of about twenty years. Working over this list. I compiled a sub-list of thirty theses pertaining to plane geometry. About half of this group were found to be studies comparing the directed study or laboratory method of teaching with the traditional lesson-learning plan. Of the remaining fifteen, six dealt with motivating materials in plane geometry. It was not possible to tell from the titles in every instance what the remaining studies actually were reporting on.

1 . . Through the courtesy of the Boston University

School of Education Library and the Inter-University

Library Loan Service, several of the theses with the

doubtful titles and several which were thought might

apply were requested for examination. In every instance,

however, the theses examined were found not to have any

direct bearing on the work this paper is experimenting

with.

The studies examined brought to light some experimental procedures, however, in the handling of conclusions which the writer thought might apply to this study.

There are numerous indications in recent geometry textbooks that much thought has been given to the subject of postulation. In addition to the opinion of textbook writers, many articles by teachers of mathematics were found which indicate that the subject has been discussed pro and con. In the investigation of the literature of the field which follows, an attempt will be made to indicate what textbook writers are doing. Second, some of the arguments both for and against postulation will be given which were located in professional periodicals and books.

It has been interesting to note how the postulation idea has developed from the idea of postulating only the congruence theorems as expressed by Shibli

 to that of postulating theorems on congruence, parallelism, similarity, and inequalities as indicated by Reeve, Birkhoff and Beatley, and others.

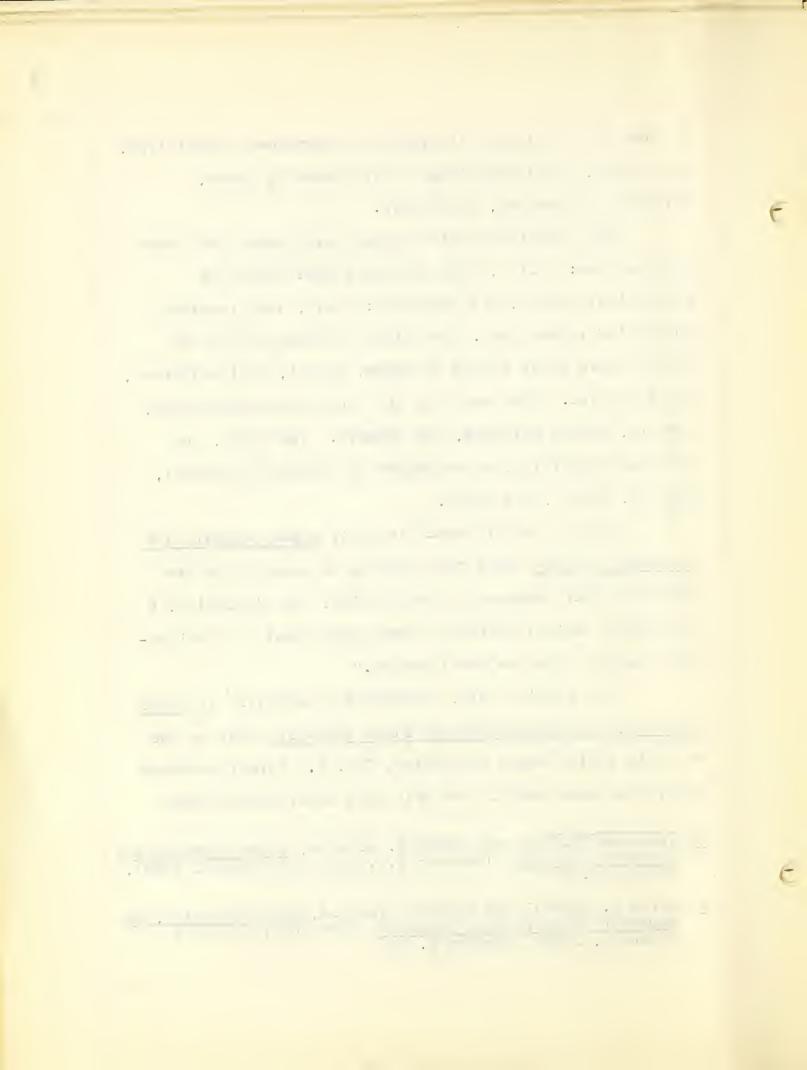
The quotations which follow were chosen for three main reasons: First, they discussed what should be postulated; second, why postulate; third, they recorded opposition to the idea. The first is taken care of by the articles which follow by Reeve, Shibli, Christofferson, and Welkowitz. The second by the quotes from Mensenkamp, Fawcett, Purdue Workshop, and Nygaard. The third, the recorded opposition, as evidenced by articles by Royall, Salkind, Barber, and Lynch.

Herberg and Orleans 1 in their A New Geometry for Secondary Schools state "By treating as assumptions the conditions for congruence, parallelism, and similarity, a thoroughly logical course has been built that is considerably simpler than the usual course."

In a similar vein, Crawford and Schnell² in Clear Thinking, An Approach through Plane Geometry offer as one of their twelve basic principles, "No. 2, Formal geometry progresses more rapidly and with more understanding when

Theodore Herberg and Joseph B. Orleans, A New Geometry for Secondary Schools, (Boston; D.C. Heath and Company, 1948), Preface p. 3

Leroy H. Schnell and Mildred Crawford, Clear Thinking, An Approach through Plane Geometry, (New York; Harper & Brothers, 1943), Preface p. 10



extreme care is taken in developing fundamental concepts.

No good or lasting purpose is served by rushing into a study of formal demonstrative proofs."

Birkhoff and Beatley in Basic Geometry. "The traditional approach to demonstrative geometry involves careful study of certain theorems which the beginner is eager to accept without proof and which he might properly be led to take for granted as assumption or postulate. Such an approach obscures at the very outset the meaning of 'proof' and 'demonstration'. The employment of superposition in the proof of some of these theorems is even more demoralizing. This method of proof is so out of harmony with the larger aims of geometry instruction that despite the validity, its use is commonly restricted to those few cases for which no better method can be found."

Reichgott and Spiller 2/ in Today's Geometry.

"Formal demonstration is kept at a minimum. No attempt is made to adhere to a rigorous proof. There are more postulates, assumptions, and assumed theorems than in traditional geometry. Numerous exercises based on these theorems and postulates afford practice in logical development."

^{1/} George D. Birkhoff and Ralph Beatley, Basic Geometry, (Scott, Foresman and Company, 1941, Chicago), Preface p. 3

^{2/} David Reichgott and Lee R. Spiller, Today's Geometry, (New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1938), Preface p. 7

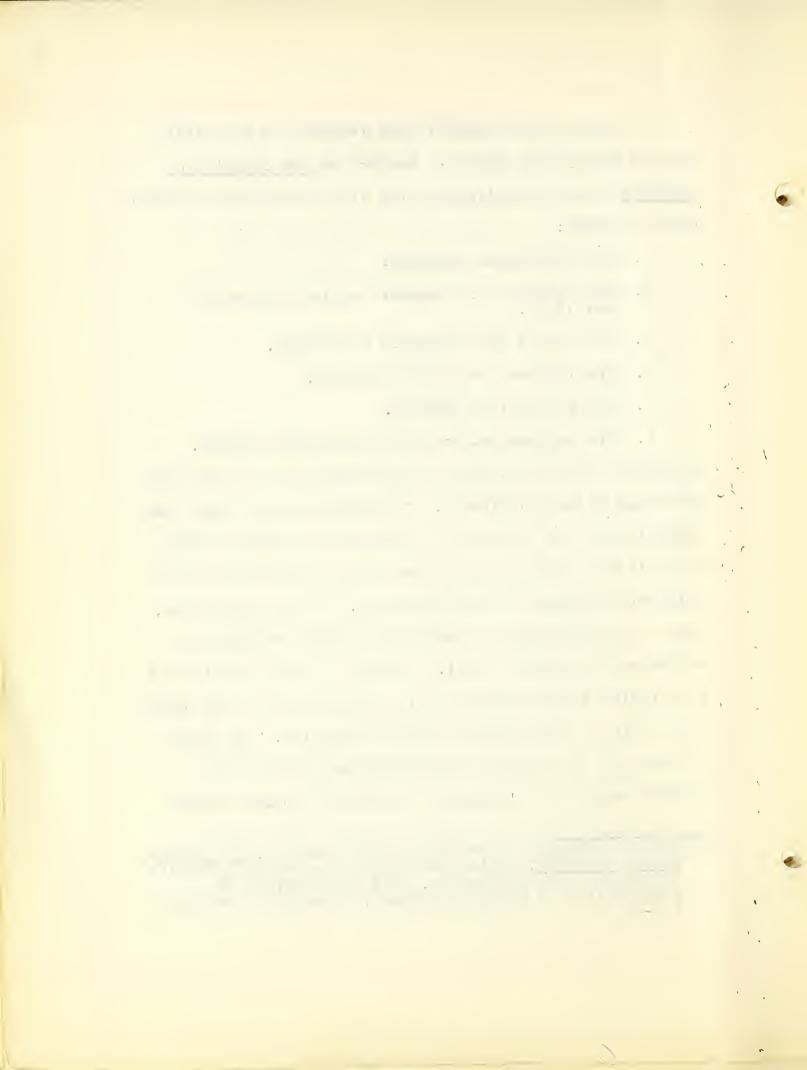
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Let us next consider what teachers in the field have to say on the subject. Reeve 1/ in The Teaching of Geometry gives the following list of particularly important basic theorems:

- 1. The congruence theorems.
- 2. The equality of alternate angles in case of parallels.
- 3. The sum of the angles of a triangle.
- 4. The theorems on similar figures.
- 5. The Pythagorean Theorem.
- 6. The measurement of angle between two chords.

He suggests that we might well postulate all but the third and could do most originals. "So important are these few propositions that if we had no others with which to work we could with these alone prove a large proportion of the original exercises of plane geometry." and he continues, "Proof of propositions in textbooks should be models or should not be proved at all. In fact we could easily omit the proofs of many conventional propositions and the pupils would gain in every respect by such omission. Eg. Proof for each of the family of parallelogram propositions usually begins with 'Diagonal of a parallelogram divides

National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, The Teaching of Geometry, Fifth Yearbook of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, (New York; Bureau of Publications of Teachers College, Columbia University,) p 1-28



it into two congruent triangles.' This and all such simple propositions should be treated as original exercises."

Birkhoff and Beatley in A New Approach to

Elementary Geometry present the following argument, "What is the point in telling beginners that we shall assume certain 'self-evident truths', and then asking them to prove certain other propositions which they regard as equally self-evident truths? Would they not come to a greater understanding of the nature of a proof through the effort to prove easy 'originals' which are not too plausible and which seem therefore to require justification?"

Mensenkamp² in <u>Some Desirable Characteristics in</u>

a <u>Modern Plane Geometry Text</u> presents these factors to be considered: "First, there is the pupil himself. The number enrolled constitutes a much larger proportion of the total population than it did a decade or so ago.

This means there are now present in our tenth grade classes many more students representing the lower levels of mental ability then was formerly the case. Most students of this type do not intend to go to college and it is hard to interest them in a difficult subject like

National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, The Teaching of Geometry, Fifth Yearbook of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, (New York; Bureau of Publications of Teachers College, Columbia University), p 86-96

^{2/} Ibid., p 199-206

1 1 -111 - 121 - -11 geometry, especially if the textbook presentation is of an abstract or formal character. The two reports which have given direction and sanction to geometry reform in this country during the past several years are: The recorganization of mathematics in secondary schools, a report by the National Committee on Mathematics Requirements (1923), and a report of the College Entrance Examination Board on Geometry requirements."

Fawcett in The Nature of Proof states "Actual classroom practice indicates that major emphasis is placed on a body of theorems to be learned rather than on the method by which these theorems are established.

Pupil feels theorems are important in themselves and in his earnest effort to know them resorts to memorization."

Shibli² in Recent Developments in the Teaching of Plane Geometry. "Some teachers advocate postulating congruence by sides along with the other two congruence theorems in the interests of simplicity and consistency. Some fear that the movement toward free postulation may go too far."

^{1/} National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, The Nature of Proof, Thirteenth Yearbook of National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (New York; Bureau of publications of Teachers College, Columbia University), p. 117

^{2/} J. Shibli, Recent Developments in the Teaching of Plane Geometry, (1932, Penn State College, published by J. Shibli), p. 104

. . . a

Christofferson in Geometry Professionalized for Teachers suggests the postulation of congruent triangles rather than proof by superposition. "The chief defense for complete postulation of all three theorems, in addition to the abandonment of superposition is simplicity and understanding at the beginning of the course."

He goes on to say that the number of Fundamental Theorems chosen should be based upon whether they are to be used again in the proof of other theorems and mentions the possibility of using only ten constructions and twenty theorems or a total of thirty as compared to the average of 195 constructions, theorems, and corollaries in six oftenused textbooks. See Appendix A, Table 1 for table showing this comparison taken from Christofferson's study.

It is interesting to note that the purpose of this study was to discover how few really fundamental theorems are needed upon which to build the entire structure of geometry. This was from a professional and not a mathematical point of view.

H.C.Christofferson, Geometry Professionalized for Teachers, (George Banta Publishing Company, Menasha, Wisconsin, 1933), p. 34-37

The following extracts from the list of "suggested places in plane geometry in which we can shorten, eliminate, or postulate to allow time to introduce space concepts" were taken from the report of the committee \frac{1}{} working on the first six weeks in plane geometry of the second annual Purdue Mathematics Workshop. These extracts emphasize a point this paper is trying to determine -- whether or not too much time is being given to formal proof.

- 1. It is suggested that we postulate the theorem "one and only one line can be drawn from (at) a given point perpendicular to a given line."
- 2. If the hypotenuse angle congruency proposition is proved by superposition, it might be postulated.
- 3. It might be possible to postulate the theorem "If two angles have their sides respectively perpendicular, they are either equal or supplementary."
- 4. The theorem "The sum of the angles of a polygon of n sides is (n-2) straight angles" may be postulated or proved informally.
- 5. In connection with inequalities in a triangle or a circle, certain theorems and corollaries might be postulated.
- 6. The concurrency propositions, having been intuitively established in the introduction, may be postulated.
- 7. Postulate the theorem "If two polygons are similar, they can be divided into triangles which are similar and similarly placed" and its converse.
- 8. Postulate the continuity of the Pythagorean Theorem as applied to similar polygons constructed upon the three sides of a right triangle.

A complete list will be found in Appendix A, Table 2.

^{1/} Committee on the First Six Weeks in Plane Geometry, Second Annual Purdue Mathematics Workshop, June 16-June 28, 1947

Following along the same line. Nygaard in A Functional Revision of Plane Geometry says. "The writer has made some effort to determine what material, usually included in plane geometry, is of little or no value in later mathematics or science courses. He is convinced that a number of the theorems dealing with the circle have no future use -- for instance, the measurement of all sorts of angles in terms of their intercepted arcs." "Theorems based on dividing a line segment externally are in the same class." "Comprehensive proofs of the theorems dealing with the area of rectangles, parallelograms, triangles, and trapezoids would come under the same ban," "Many of the relationships involved in triangles. parallelograms, and circles could be more efficiently presented as lists of characteristic properties or as student exercises than as theorems completely proved in the textbook."

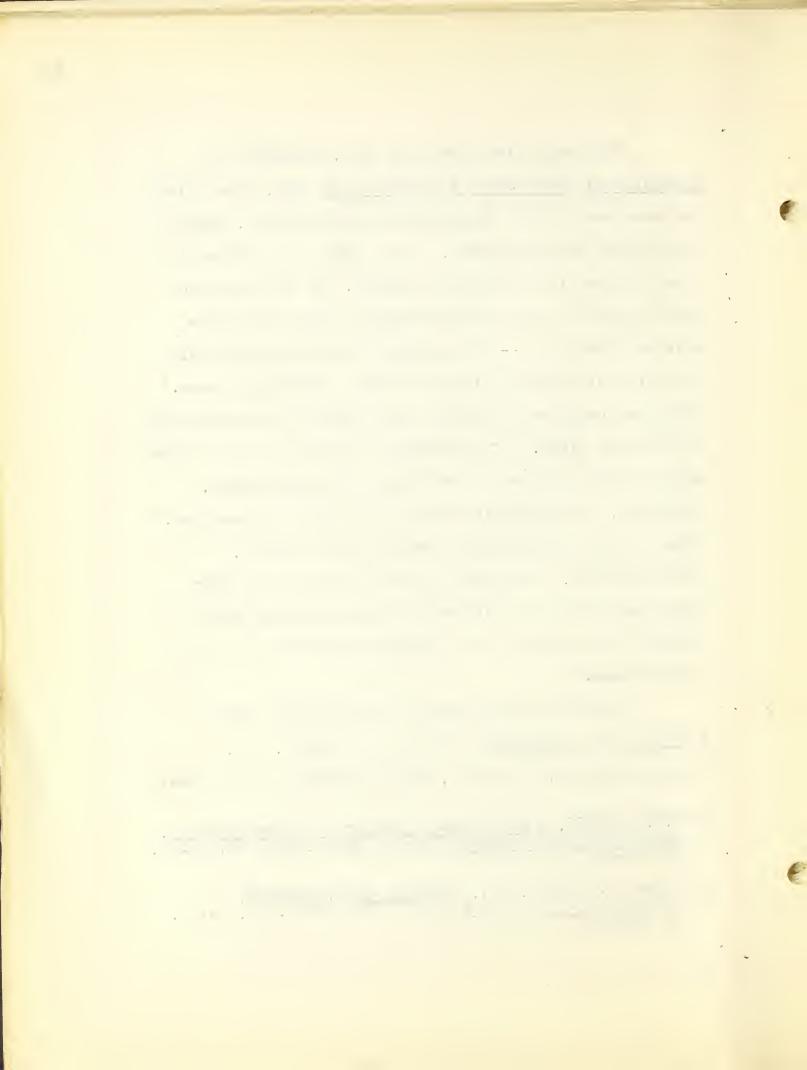
Readers who are interested may wish to read

A Reply to Mr. Nygaard 2/ by Norman N. Royall, Jr.,

Winthrop College, Rock Hill, South Carolina, or a further

P.H. Nygaard, A Functional Revision of Plane Geometry,
The Mathematics Teacher (October 1941), Vol. 34, No. 6,
pp 269-273

^{2/} Norman N. Royall, Jr., A Reply to Mr. Nygaard, The Mathematics Teacher (April 1942), Vol. 35, No. 4, pp 179-181



discussion of Mr. Nygaard's article entitled The War on Euclid, by Charles Salkind $\frac{1}{\cdot}$.

Royall is concerned with the harm that may be done to sound instruction in mathematics by the type of discussion quoted above. He suggests that when Mr. Nygaard or anyone else makes "A Functional Revision of Plane Geometry" one cannot be sure that what is left is plane geometry, and he points out that one of the primary objectives of a plane geometry course is to give the students a chance to learn the nature of a deductive proof.

Salkind agrees with several of the premises, but feels that intuitive geometry is taken care of by our Junior High Schools. He says, "However, whether this type of geometry teaching, call it intuitive or informational or experimental or inductive, precedes the unit of demonstrative geometry or is taught simultaneously with it, it is imperative for us, as purveyors of Mathematical Knowledge, to know the nature of demonstrative geometry."

^{1/} Charles Salkind, The War on Euclid, The Mathematics Teacher (May 1942), Volume 35, No. 5, pp 205-207

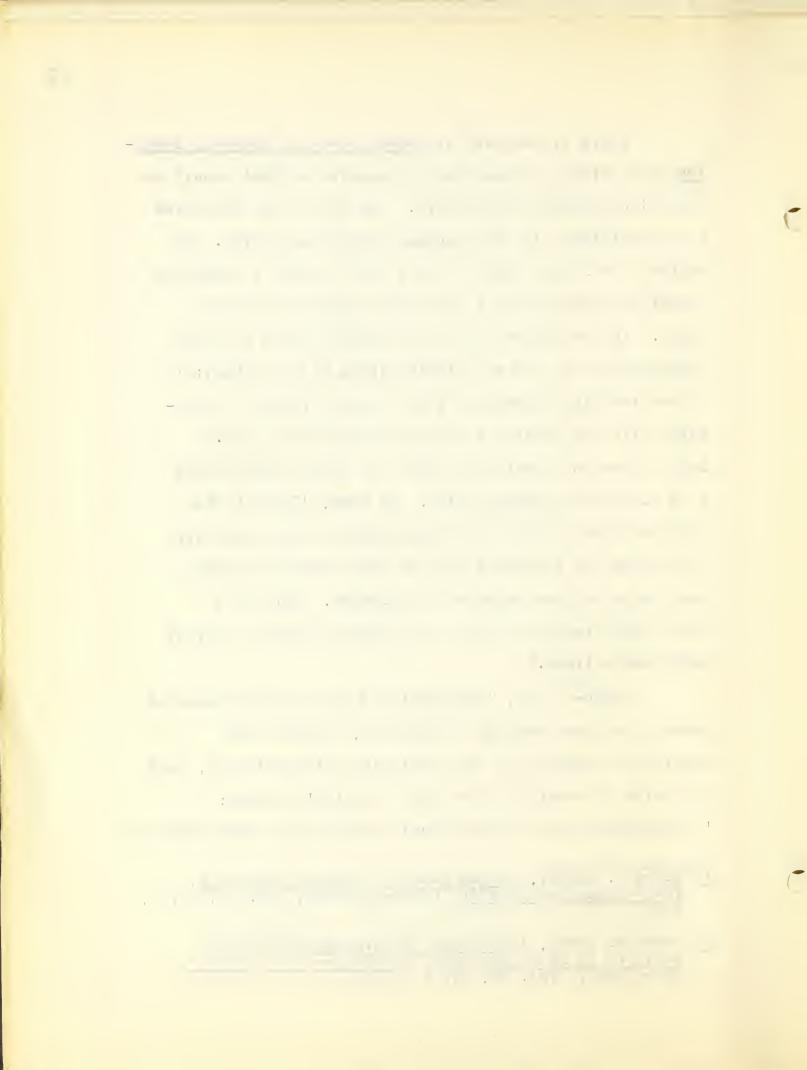
Harry C. Barber in Random Notes on Geometry Teaching says "There has been much discussion of what should be done with superposition proofs. The plan often advocated is to postulate all the theorems usually so proved. In England the reason given is that when we move a figure we cannot be certain that it does not change in size and shape. In the United States the reasons given are that superposition is not a suitable method at the outset; it is not readily understood by the beginner: and it interferes with the later use of other methods of proof." Barber goes on to point out that all direct measurement is a process of superposition. He says, "To omit the superposition proofs at the beginning of plane geometry is to miss the strongest link we have between everyday experience and the argument of geometry. Here is a place where teachers need to do battle against a current unfortunate trend."

Lynch 2/says, "outstanding among the many modes of attack that came rapidly to the fore, and one that apparently disposed of the difficulty satisfactorily, took its point of departure from one of Goethe's maxims:

'The greatest art in theoretical and practical life consists

Harry C. Barber, Random Notes on Geometry Teaching,
The Mathematics Teacher, (January 1938), Vol. 31, No. 1,
p 31

^{2/} James M. Lynch, Individual Differences and Course Revision in Plane Geometry, The Mathematics Teacher, (March 1942), Vol. 35, No. 3, p 122

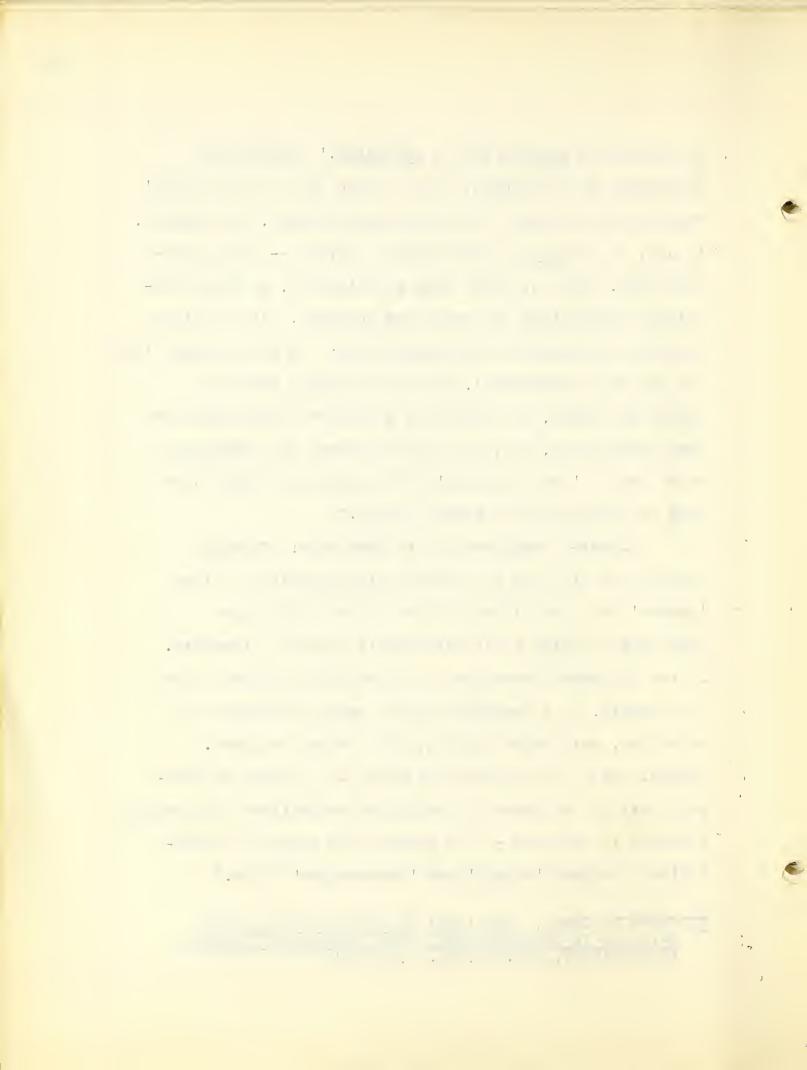


in changing a problem into a postulate.' Accordingly, following this procedure, it was urged that if the pupils' capacity for learning the congruence theorems, for example, is low, do not try to teach those theorems -- just postulate them, that is, treat them as axiomatic, as data selfevident immediately and requiring no proof. Is the class too dull to understand the proposition: if two straight lines are cut by a transversal, and the alternate interior angles are equal, the lines are parallel? Then postulate that proposition, too, and all annoyances and confusions about how to 'get it across' will vanish as though blown away on the wings of a gentle breeze."

Lynch continues in the same vein: "Merely turning the problems of teaching plane geometry to the 'masses' into postulates has the rather attractive advantage of being a very pleasantly painless procedure. It has the added advantage of increasingly gaining favor and support, as a teaching device, among professors of education, curriculum experts, and textbook authors.

Indeed, one of the distinctive marks of a modern progressive text is the number of postulate assumptions and assumed theorems it contains -- the greater the amount of postulation, the more 'modern' and 'progressive' it is."

I/ James M. Lynch, Individual Differences and Course Revision in Plane Geometry, The Mathematics Teacher, (March 1942), Vol. 35, No. 3, p. 122



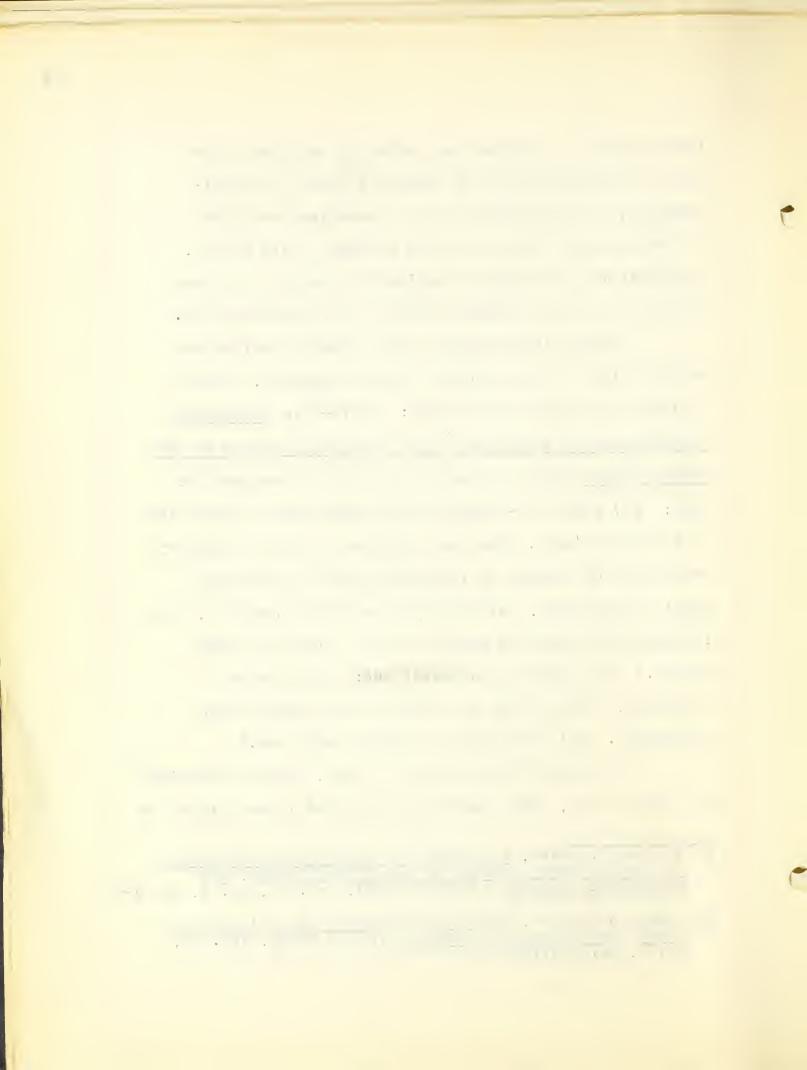
Lynch prefers to attack the problem by working on the mode of presentation as an important factor in understanding; and he suggests that by changing the style of presentation rather than the content of the course, the great mass of ordinary pupils will be able to cope with the material commonly reserved for a selected few.

Further investigation into suggested omissions and additions for the course in plane geometry, brings to light the following articles: Reeve in A Proposal for Mathematics Education in the Secondary Schools of the United States says "In geometry it will be necessary to emit: (1) About two-thirds of the traditional propositions to be proved fully. The real purpose of logical geometry can better be secured by retaining only the necessary basal propositions, introducing more original matter, and reducing the deduction aspects of the course for many pupils." "In geometry we should add: (1) A modern beginning, establishing the truth of the propositions informally. This movement is already under way."

On choosing the theorems to keep, Samuel Welkowitz 2/has this to say, "The point to be stressed is not ground to

William D. Reeve, A Proposal for Mathematics Education in the Secondary Schools of the United States, The Mathematics Teacher (January 1943), Vol. 36, No. 1, pp 11-20

^{2/} Samuel Welkowitz, Tenth Year Geometry for all American Youth, The Mathematics Teacher (March 1946), Vol. 39, No. 3, pp. 99-112



be covered but ground to be cultivated. More emphasis should be placed on the nature and meaning of deductive reasoning or the process of drawing necessary conclusions from a given set of assumptions and its application in all life thinking. Less emphasis should be placed on the solving of originals and more attention should be given to the appreciation of the nature of reasoning and types of reasoning.

"In line with the above the following guiding principles are recommended in selecting the propositions to be retained. Only those propositions should be retained for deductive proof or for factual knowledge or both which fulfill at least one of the following conditions:

(1) They have many varied and interesting applications in the sciences, industry, shop, navigation and the arts of war (2) They form an indispensable link in the logical chain of reasoning. In the latter case it may sometimes be more desirable to assume the truth of the proposition on the basis of an informal proof or experiment."

I would like to close this discussion of the literature on the subject by reviewing some of the remarks of Rolland R. Smith on "How Much Formal Proof in Plane Geometry?" In this, he states, "We

Proof in Plane
Geometry? Subject of talk given at open conference
on the teaching of mathematics in secondary schools
at Boston University, School of Education, April 20, 1949

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should have enough formal proof to fulfill our aims."

In order to do this we should clarify our aims and he suggests that five or six large aims are certainly better than fifty or sixty small aims.

The changed type of College Entrance Board

Examinations in mathematics has been responsible for

some of the change in organization of material in

plane geometry. Twenty years ago this examination

would have consisted of six questions, two of them

being book theorems to be proved. Since 1933, however,

the examinations have been quite different. No proofs

have been required for several years, but students

have had to reason.

ment of how to handle proof of propositions in classes of varying ability. He says, "Discuss the proof informally in all classes and reproduce it in the best classes." 1

Rolland R. Smith, How Much Formal Proof in Plane
Geometry? Subject of talk given at open conference
on the teaching of mathematics in secondary schools
at Boston University, School of Education, on
April 20, 1949

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CHAPTER II

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

The two groups to be experimented with consist of two classes each of eleventh-grade students enrolled in a traditional plane geometry course. One group, during the school year 1947-48, was taught by the formal method with the formal proof of theorems; e.g. the congruence of triangles by superposition learned or committed to memory. The other group, during the school year 1948-49, meeting at the same hours of the day, having the same teacher and textbook, used the informal method where the formal proof of the same theorems was omitted and the theorems were postulated for future use in solution of original examples.

These groups were taken from a junior-senior high school of about four hundred and fifty pupils total enrollment. A check with the school office showed a great deal of information to be available from the cumulative record cards as to previous grades, chronological age, ability, etc.

In addition this school has adopted the policy of using the Boston University School and College Relations Cooperative Testing Service which tests all pupils in the eighth grade with an educational battery of tests and again in the eleventh grade with a vocational battery of tests. Results of these tests are available for both groups

as eleventh graders, but for only the 1949 group as eighth graders. This would appear to be sufficient, however; and while some further refinement in grouping might have been possible with the eighth-grade data for both groups, this cannot be had for another year.

This data will be available in the following tables and charts in Appendix B:

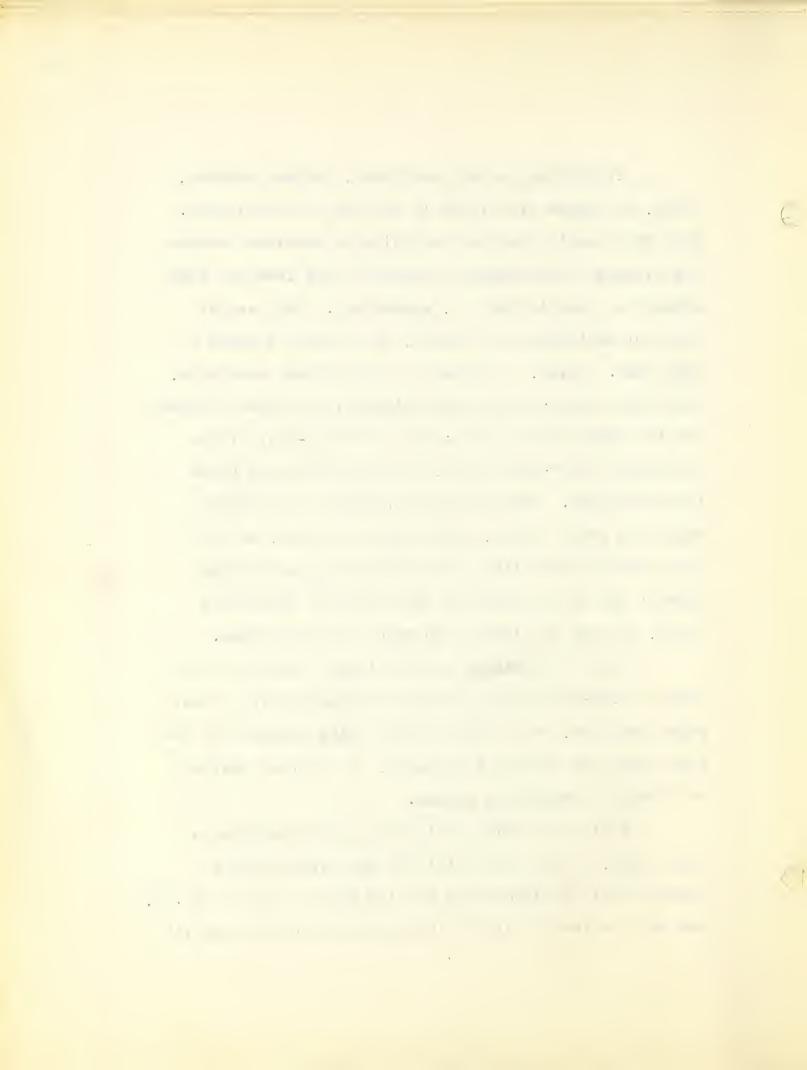
- 1. Graph of Intelligence Quotient versus Frequency of All Eleventh-grade Students and of Plane Geometry Students in 1948.
- 2. Graph of Intelligence Quotient versus Frequency of All Eleventh-grade Students and of Plane Geometry Students in 1949.
- 3. Data Used in Calculating Mean Intelligence Quotients and Sigma of Unequated Groups.
- 4. Data Used in Calculating Mean Intelligence Quotients and Sigma of Equated Groups First Trial.
- 5. Data Used in Calculating Mean Intelligence Quotients and Sigma of Equated Groups.
- 6. Intelligence Quotients and Previous Marks in Mathematics of 1948 Group.
- 7. Intelligence Quotients and Previous Marks in Mathematics of 1949 Group.
- 8. Data from Boston University School and College Relations Cooperative Testing Service Vocational Battery for Pupils in 1948 Group.
- 9. Data from Boston University School and College Relations Cooperative Testing Service Vocational Battery for Pupils in 1949 Group.

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In setting up the experiment, it was proposed, first, to equate the groups by pairing of individuals. This was done by plotting intelligence quotients versus the average of mathematics grades for the 1948 and 1949 groups as shown in Chart 3, Appendix A. The results were not satisfactory, however, as a study of Chart 1 will show. First, in regard to intelligence quotients, note that there is only one horizontal pair line indicating the same ability level; and in twenty-four of the remaining thirty-four pairs, the 1948 group was below the 1949 group. Comparing the average of mathematics marks for grades seven, eight, nine, and ten, we find nine vertical pair lines indicating the same average grades; and in seventeen of the remaining twenty-six pairs, we find the 1948 group below the 1949 group.

Since the pairing of individuals produced only about thirty-five pairs of the forty odd pupils in each group compared, and a study of the pairs showed that the 1949 group had decided advantages, it was then decided to attempt to equate by groups.

Taking the data available for all students in each group, it was found that the mean intelligence quotient for the 1948 group was 105 with a sigma of 12.05, and for the 1949 group the intelligence quotient was 112



Dividing the difference between the means by the standard error of the difference gave a ratio of 2.76, which from Table 34, page 213 in Garrett on Statistics \(\) showed that the chances were 99.72 in 100 or almost a virtual certainty that the difference between the two groups was significant.

The above results necessitated the elimination of some of the lower members of the 1948 group and of the higher members in the 1949 group. The first trial of dropping the four lowest members of the 1948 group and the top two of the 1949 group gave a mean intelligence quotient of 106 for 1948 against 114 for 1949. On the second trial dropping the lowest nine for 1948 and the top four of 1949 gave a mean intelligence quotient of 108, sigma 10.2, for 1948 versus 110, sigma 10.1 for 1949. This difference between the means was then checked for significance by the same type of computation as the original difference (see Table 5, Appendix A), and the standard error of the

Henry E. Garrett, Statistics in Psychology and Education, New York, Longmans, Green and Co., 1940, p. 213

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difference was found to be plus or minus 2.43. Dividing the difference between the means by the standard error of the difference gave a ratio of .783, which from Table 34½/entering at .80 showed that the chances were reduced to 79 in 100 that the true difference was greater than zero. Since the lower limit is negative, there is some chance that the true difference is less than zero. Inasmuch as the authors of the test give the probable error of estimate based on 600 pupils to be four points, this difference does not seem to be too great.

This now left thirty-five members in each group of plane geometry students with which to carry on the experiment.

These students have been equated upon the basis of intelligence quotient, but in line with the suggestion in Whitney 2/ Elements of Research their equivalence has been checked for certain other significant characteristics summarized in the following table taken from the Data Tables in Appendix B.

Henry E. Garrett, Statistics in Psychology and Education, New York, Longmans, Green and Co., 1940, p. 213

^{2/} Frederick L. Whitney, The Elements of Research, New York, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1942, p. 225

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Table I. Summary of Equivalence Factors

Factor	1948 Group Means	1949 Group Means	241
Intelligence Quotient	108	110	5
Chronological Age	16 yrs 2 mos	16 yrs O mos	8 & 9
Average of Previous Mathematics Marks	2.43 - C+	2.47 - C+	6 & 7
Problem Solving Ability	7	7	8 & 9
Reading Comprehension	165	165	8 & 9
Spatial Relations	46	40	8 & 9

The next question that arose was what theorems should be postulated. The authorities in the field, Christofferson, Shibli, Herberg and Orleans, Birkhoff and Beatley, etc., are very much in agreement as to the main groups that should be postulated.

W.D.Reeve in the Fifth Yearbook suggests the following be postulated: first, congruence of triangles; second, equality of alternate interior angles of parallel lines; third, theorems on similar figures; fourth, Pythagorean Theorem; fifth, measurement of angle between two chords.

^{1/} National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, The Teaching of Geometry, Fifth Yearbook of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, (New York; Bureau of Publications of Teachers College, Columbia University), p.23

. . of theorems whose proofs depend upon artificial means such as superposition and indirect proof should be postulated. The second criteria applied was whether the theorems were needed in the proof of other theorems. Table 6, Appendix A gives the complete list of theorems postulated with the 1949 group. All other theorems were handled as original exercises. One interesting feature of the textbook used was that in the group of original exercises immediately preceding a theorem, in many instances, an exercise was used which was identical with the following theorem.

of the textbooks examined (see Table 7, Appendix A) several were found which postulated or assumed the proof of practically all theorems. Several more were found which assumed or postulated the proof of the congruence theorem; but only one, Herberg and Orleans \(\frac{1}{2}\)/\ \(\text{A New Geometry}\) for Secondary Schools, followed the pattern outlined in the previous paragraph. The textbook used by the experimental group, Welchons & Krickenberger \(\frac{2}{2}\)/\ Plane Geometry, presented

^{1/} Theodore Herberg and Joseph B. Orleans, A New Geometry for Secondary Schools, (Boston, D.C. Heath and Co., 1948)

^{2/} A.M. Welchons and W.R. Krickenberger, Plane Geometry, (Boston, Ginn and Co., 1943)

a difficulty that could have been eliminated if the Herberg and Orleans text could have been used. Proofs of the assumed theorems were omitted from the body of the text but were given in a section at the end of the book.

This led to some discussion among the better students as to why the work was being omitted. In order not to bias this part of the experiment, the few who wanted to go into proofs such as superposition and having time to do so were told why these were being postulated and advised to go ahead on their own study of formal proofs and the instructor would be available for discussions outside of class.

There seem to be three main groups of textbooks with regard to this idea of postulating or assuming the truth of a theorem without formal proof: First, the group of which Schnell and Crawford Clear Thinking may be said to be typical where many assumed theorems are accepted and few formal proofs appear in the book; second, the group of which Herberg and Orleans A New Geometry for Secondary Schools is typical taking a middle ground

Leroy H. Schnell and Mildred Crawford, Clear Thinking,
An Approach through Plane Geometry, (New York, Harper & Brothers, 1943)

^{2/} Theodore Herberg and Joseph B. Orleans, A New Geometry for Secondary Schools, (Boston, D.C. Heath and Co., 1948)

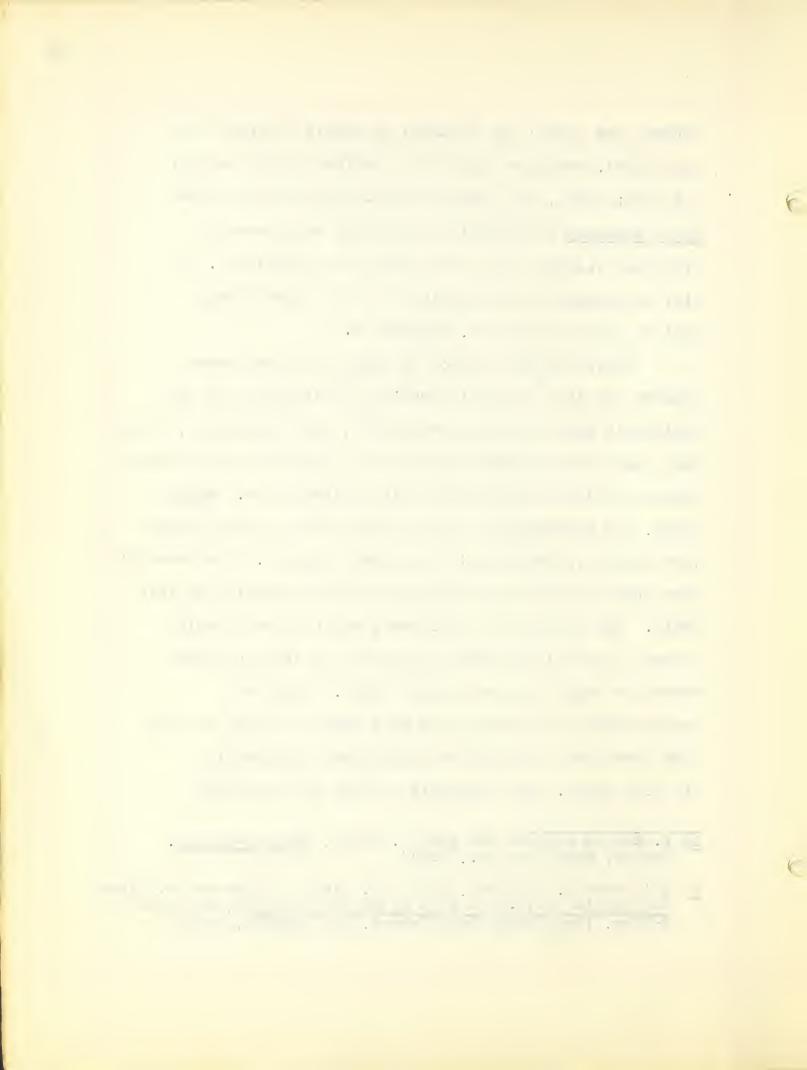
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between the formal and informal and while theorems are postulated, complete proofs are provided in the back of the book; third, the group of which Seymour and Smith Plane Geometry is typical in which the congruence of triangles theorems and a few others are postulated. A list of geometry books falling in the various groups will be found in Table 7, Appendix A.

While the main factor on which the groups were equated was that of ability rating as determined by the California Test of Mental Maturity Advanced form S, there were other factors which needed to be taken care of so that the one variable experiment could be carried on. Among these, the timetable of work for 1948 versus 1949 classes (see Table 8, Appendix A) was watched closely. The Teacher's Plan Book for 1948 was the source used for setting up this table. The work of the 1949 group was held as closely to that of the 1948 group as possible so that no undue advantage would be given either group. This was accomplished by allotting the same number of days to the 1949 group for each unit of work as was required by the 1948 group. The timetable of work for the 1948

^{1/} F. Eugene Seymour and Paul J. Smith, Plane Geometry, Boston, Macmillan Co., 1941)

^{2/} Elizabeth T. Sullivan, Willis W. Clark, and Ernest W. Tiegs, California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity, Advanced S-Form, (California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, 1939)



group versus the 1949 group gives the following information: the units in the order taught; number of days required by the 1948 group; number of days actually used by the 1949 group; a column showing the difference in time actually used by the two groups, a plus indicates less time required and a minus indicates more time required for the 1949 group as compared to the 1948 group.

It is interesting to note that due to the informal method used, a gain of about fifteen days' time was made during the first half year. Ten of these days were allotted to a unit on "space geometry" which had previously been left out of the course. The remaining five days were kept for possible use during the second half of the year's work. This time came in very handy as the group became so interested in the subject of loci constructions that an additional week was allotted to this unit of work.

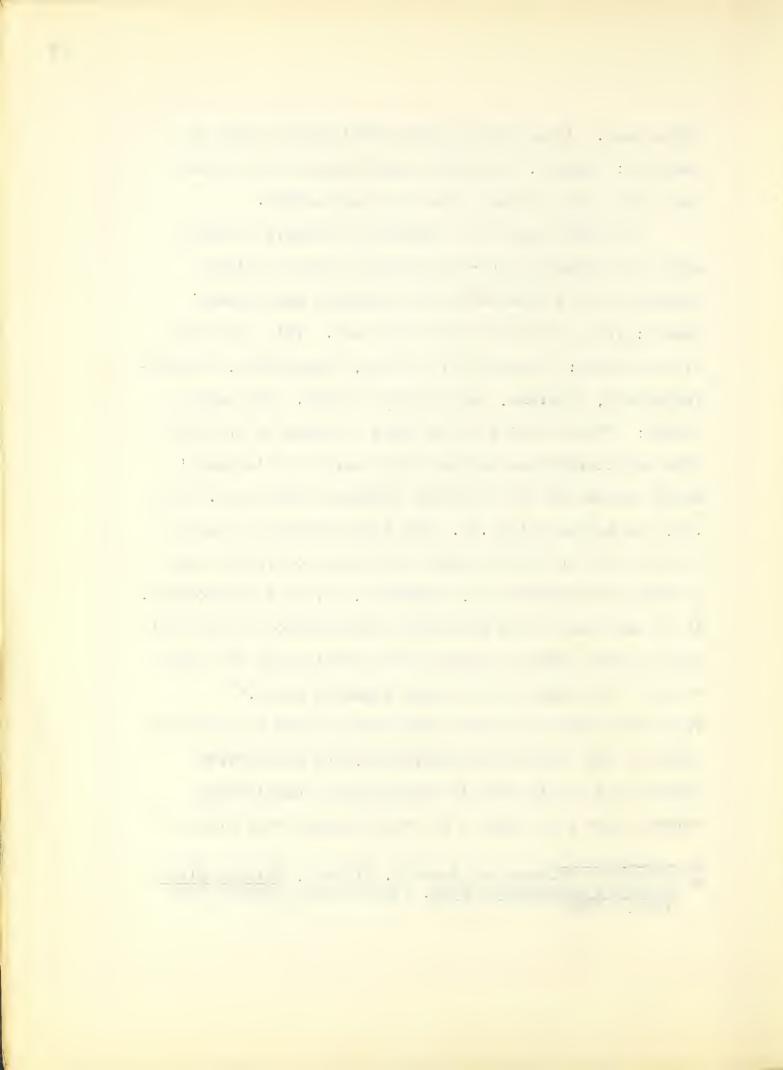
The next problem to confront the writer was to determine whether the tests given to the 1948 group at the half year and at the end of the year could be used satisfactorily with the 1949 group for the desired result.

Since the work with the 1948 group had already been closed no change could be made in the examinations

. . given them. If an ideal experimental set up could be realized; that is, two large groups carried on at the same time, this problem would not have arisen.

The 1948 group was examined in January of 1948 after approximately one-half year of study of plane geometry by the Orleans Plane Geometry Achievement Test 1: Form A for the first half year. This consisted of five parts: geometrical reasons, computation, completing proofs, diagrams, and original proofs. The author states: "The validity of the test is shown by the fact that the correlation between test scores and teachers' school marks for ten different teachers vary from .66 to .88, the median being .81. The high validity is aue in a large part to the fact that each test covers the work of only one semester and, therefore, covers it thoroughly. It is also due to the analytical organization of the test and the fact that its content and organization are aimed at the work taught in the usual geometry class." The authors also go into a discussion of how the various forms of the test were standardized, and state "The reliability of the test is shown by the correlations between Form A and Form B for ten teachers vary from .77

Joseph B. Orleans and Jacob S. Orleans, Orleans Plane Geometry Achievement Test, (World Book Company, New York, 1929)



to .87 for Test 1, with a median correlation of .85; and from .58 to .80 for Test 2, with a median correlation of .71." Percentile norms are available based on 3500 cases.

The final examination for the 1948 group given in June of 1948 was determined by the practice of the school where the experiment was carried on. Cooperative Tests of the American Council on Education are required in all subjects that tests are available for. The plane geometry classes were examined by the Cooperative Plane Geometry Test / , Revised Series Form R, by Long, Siceloff, and Spaney. This test consists of three parts: Part one, thirty true-false statements; Part two, twenty multiple choice problems with five answers to select from; Part three, fifteen more difficult multiple choice problems with five answers to select sevailable based on 9000 students from ninety schools.

The following comments covering the tests chosen for use in the experiment were taken from The Third

Mental Measurements Yearbook 2/: In a review of the Orleans Plane Geometry Achievement Test, Fawcett 3/states

John A. Long, L.P. Siceloff, and Emma Spaney, Cooperative Plane Geometry Test, Revised Series Form R, (Cooperative Test Service, New York, 1941)

^{2/} Oscar K. Buros, The Third Mental Measurements Yearbook, Rutgers University Press, New Brunswick, 1949)

Harold P. Fawcett, Review of Orleans Plane Geometry
Achievement Test and Cooperative Test, The Third Mental
Measurements Yearbook, (Rutgers Univ. Press, New Brunswick,
1949), pp 357-362

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"The test measures the factual content of geometry but ignores the larger values associated with the nature of a proof." His comment on the Cooperative Plane Geometry Test Forms R, S, and T was that they cover the facts of geometry and measure them well but, like the Orleans Test, there is not emough on the nature of a proof.

Oakley in his review of the Cooperative Plane Geometry Tests says "the test adequately covers material usually given in a plane geometry course and is well designed with respect to range and difficulty.

Because of the fact that different tests were given at the half year and the end of the year, it was necessary in order to compare the two scores to determine the gain in achievement to convert the scores on both tests to T-scores. T-scores are expressed in the same units and with respect to the same zero point and are equal throughout the scale. Hence T-scores from different tests are directly comparable and may be averaged or combined by simple addition.

^{1/} C.O.Oakley, Review of Cooperative Plane Geometry Tests, Forms R, S, T., The Third Mental Measurements Yearbook, (Rutgers University Press, New Brunswick, 1949) 357-362

. The following Tables in Appendix A contain the data and graphs used in comparing the achievement of the two groups:

- Table 9. Semi-Final and Final Test Scores for 1948 and 1949 Groups.
- Table 10. Conversion of 1948 Semi-Final Scores to Sigma Scale and T-Scores.
- Table 11. Conversion of 1949 Semi-Final Scores to Sigma Scale and T-Scores.
- Table 12. Conversion of 1948 Final Scores to Sigma Scale and T-Scores.
- Table 13. Conversion of 1949 Final Scores to Sigma Scale and T-Scores.
- Table 14. Significance of the Differences between the Means on Semi-Final and Final Test Scores.
- Table 15. Comparison of Scores and Sigman for Upper Halves of Groups on Semi-Finel Tests.
- Table 16. Comparison of Scores and Sigma for Lower Halves of Groups on Semi-Final Tests.
- Table 17. Comparison of Scores and Sigma p for Upper Halves of Groups on Final Tests.
- Table 18. Comparison of Scores and Sigma_D for Lower Halves of Groups on Final Tests.
- Table 19. Graphs of Achievement on Semi-Finel Tests for 1948 and 1949 Groups.
- Table 20. Graphs of Achievement on Final Tests for 1948 and 1949 Groups.

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CHAPTER III

GENERAL SUMMARY

In summing up, let us first consider the two groups with which we experimented. Tables 1 and 2 of Aopendix B were developed with the idea of showing the relationship of the groups used in the experiment to the larger groups of which they were members. The curve for the 1948 eleventh grade shows a median Intelligence Quotient of 101 for the seventy-six members of the grade with a median Intelligence Quotient of 107 for the plane geometry group. Of the frequency groups above the median, the plane geometry group contained a majority of the members of the entire class and below the median a much smaller membership of the entire class was found in each frequency group of the plane geometry class. This was also true for the 1949 geometry groups as compared to the 1949 eleventh grade.

These groups then can be said to show a pattern which could reasonably be expected to appear for all plane geometry groups when compared to the larger grades of which they are a part and contain most of the members of the higher Intelligence Quotient frequency groups and fewer members of the lower Intelligence Quotient frequency groups.

The attempt to equate the groups by pairing of individuals has been discussed at length in the previous

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chapter; and while the same number of pairs (thirty-five) were plotted in Table 3 of Appendix A as the number of individuals kept when finally equated by groups, a glance at the summaries given on Table 3 shows a decided advantage for the 1949 group when paired with the 1948 group.

In attempting to equate by groups (see Table 4. Appendix A), it was first found that in keeping all members of each geometry group a difference of 7.48 between the means and in favor of the 1949 group was found. This difference divided by the standard error of the aifference gave a ratio of 2.71 and is interpreted as a significant difference between the means. After several attempts, results of which are given in Tables 3, 4, and 5 of Appendix B. of dropping higher members of one group and lower members of the other group, a group of thirtyfive members in each experimental group was chosen. The difference between the means divided by the Sigman (see Table 5, Appendix A) gave a ratio of .78. Garrett 1 says "It is customary to take a difference divided by Sigman of 3.0 as indicative of a significant difference (virtual certainty) since there is only about one chance

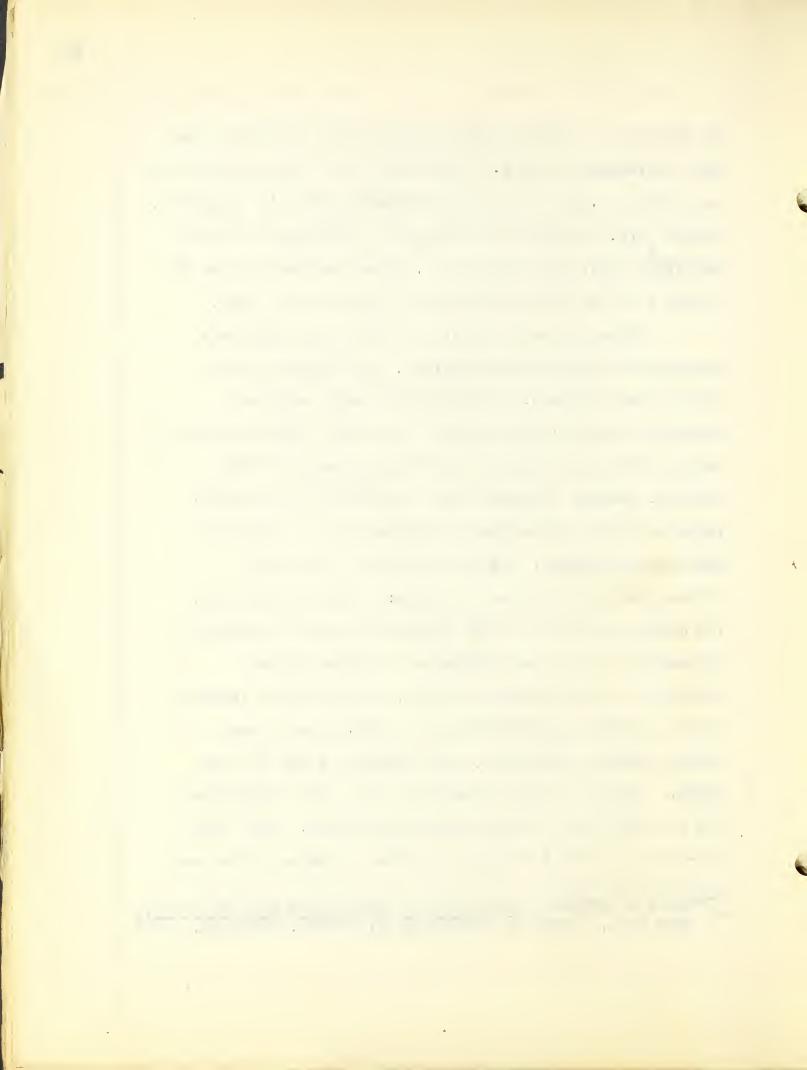
^{1/} Henry E. Garrett, Statistics in Psychology and Education, (New York, Longmans, Green and Co., 1940), p. 213

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in 1000 that a difference of +3 Sigma will arise when the true difference is zero." Following this line of reasoning our ratio of .78 is about one-quarter of what it should be, namely, 3.0, to insure a significant difference and from Garrett Table 34 entering at .80 we find the chances 79 in 100 that the true difference is greater than zero.

While the main factor on which the groups were equated was Intelligence Quotient, the following subfactors were checked: chronological age; previous mathematics marks; three scores from the Boston University Cooperative Test Service Vocational Battery (Problem Solving, Reading Comprehension, and Spatial Relations). These have been summarized in Chapter II in a Table of Equivalence Factors. In this table the following differences of the means are noted: chronological age, two months in favor of 1948 groups; average of previous mathematics marks, no difference in letter grades assigned; problem solving ability, no difference in mean scores: reading comprehension, no difference in mean scores; spatial relations, six points in favor of 1948 group. On all of these except the last, the differences are so small as to be considered negligible. The final sub-factor, spatial relations, where a greater difference

Henry E. Garrett, Statistics in Psychology and Education, (New York, Longmans, Green and Co., 1940), Table 34, p 213



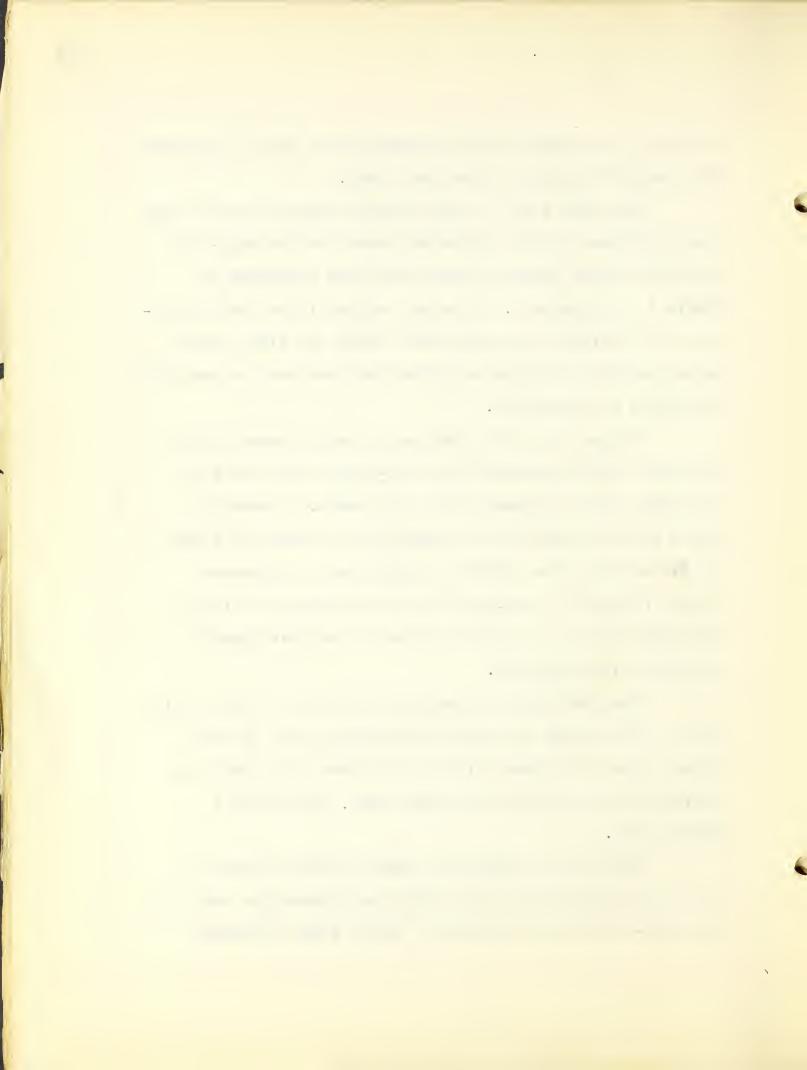
existed, might well be the deciding factor which influenced the results in favor of the 1948 group.

The data used in compering the achievements of the two groups was obtained from the scores on the semi-final and final tests given to both groups and presented in Table 9 of Appendix A. In order to facilitate the comparison, all scores on the semi-final tests and final tests were converted to Sigma scale and T-scores and are contained in Tables 10 through 13.

Tables 19 and 20 show respectively graphs of 1948 and 1949 group achievement on semi-final tests and 1948 and 1949 group achievement on final tests. A study of these graphs brought up the question as to whether either of the methods used showed any significant difference in the halves of the group with high ability and also in the halves with low ability and led to the development of Tables 15 through 18.

The question is answered by a study of these tables which show that while slight differences exist in favor of the upper and lower halves of the 1948 group over the corresponding halves of the 1949 group, they are not significant.

Table 14 of Appendix A contains the calculation of the significance of the difference between the means on the semi-final and final tests. While some difference



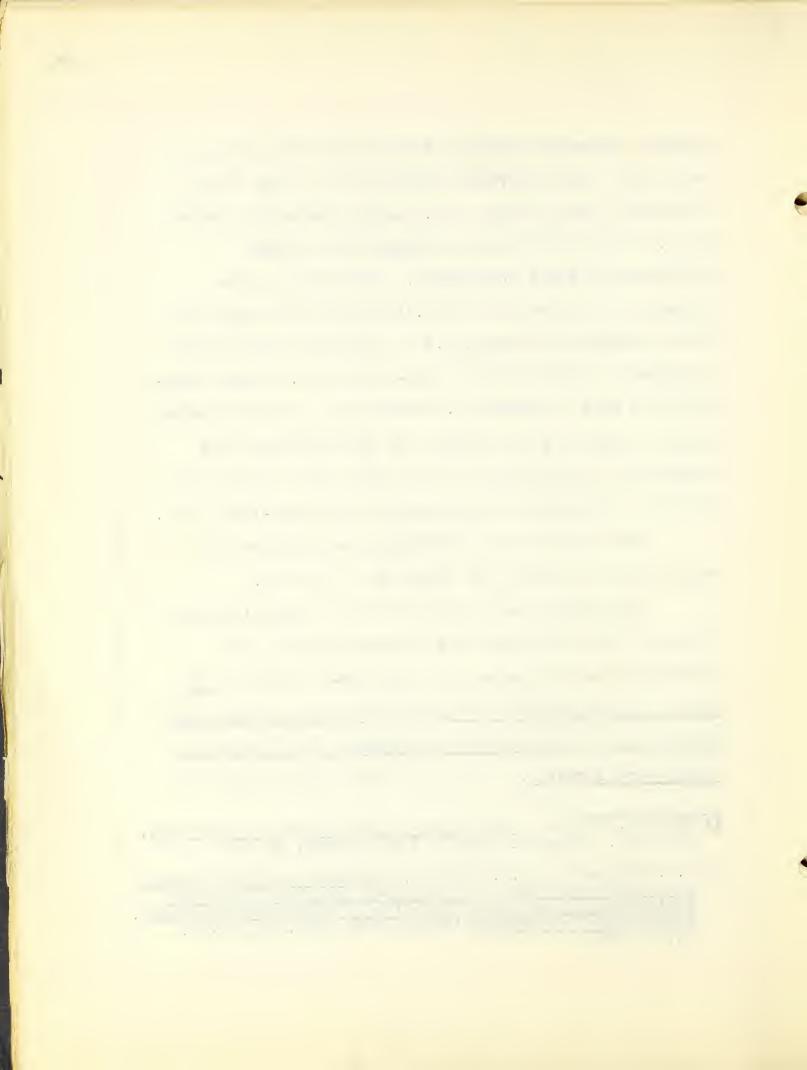
existed between the means in favor of the 1948 group on both tests, the difference divided by the sigma of the difference giving ratios of 1.8 on the semi-final tests and 1.1 on the final tests indicates that these differences are not significant. The ratio of D to SigmaD for the final test of 1.1 was about one-third of what it should be; namely, 3.0 to indicate a significant difference, and that of the semi-final of 1.8 about three-fifths of what it should be. These ratios using Garrett Table 34 show that the chances are 86 in 100 that the difference is significant on the final test and 96 in 100 that the difference is significant on the semi-final test.

The table on the following page summarizes the calculations of Sigma for Tables 14 through 18.

The method used in this table for summarizing the results of the experiment was discovered first in a research paper by Hunziker and Douglass 2 entitled, The Relative Effectiveness of a Large Unit Plan of Supervised Study and the Daily Recitation Method in the Teaching of Algebra and Geometry. It was also used extensively in a

^{1/} Henry E. Garrett, Statistics in Psychology and Education, New York, Longmans, Green and Co., 1940), p. 213

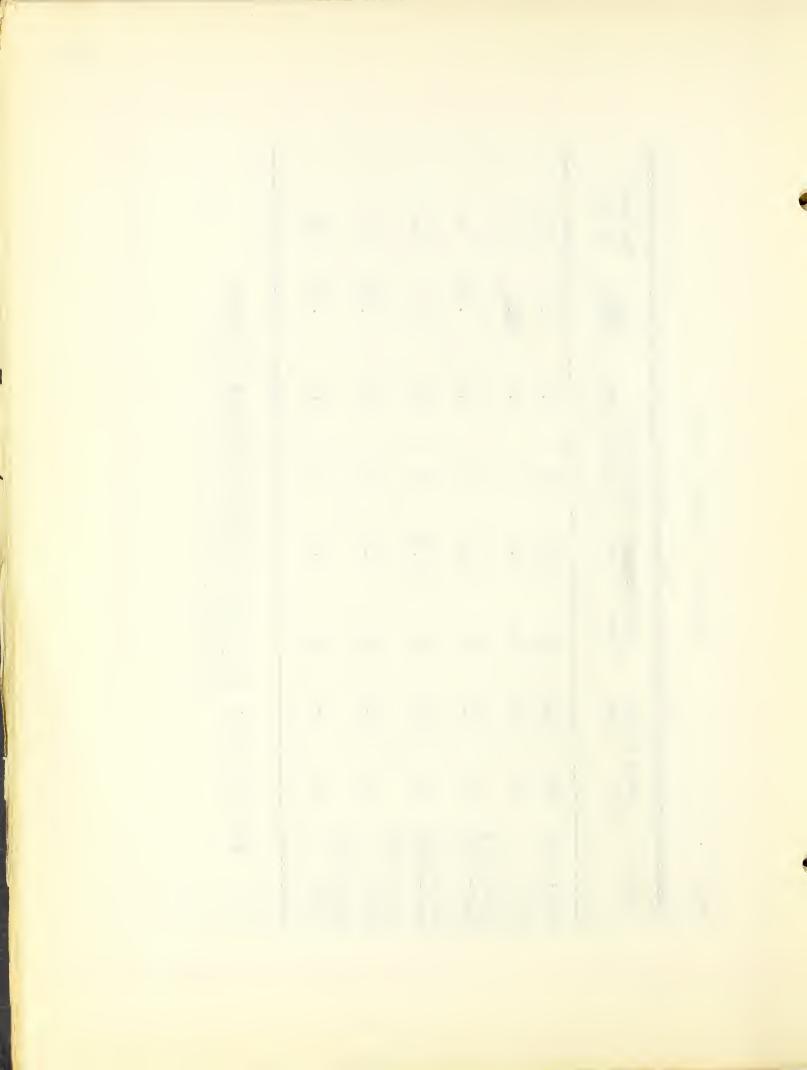
^{2/} ClW.Hunziker and H.R.Douglass, The Relative Effectiveness of a Large Unit Plan of Supervised Study and the Daily Recitation Method in the Teaching of Algebra and Geometry, The Mathematics Teacher (March 1937), Vol. 30, No. 3, pp. 122-124



18 ı Summary of Tables 10 Table II.

Test	1948 Gr Mesn S	Group Sigma	1949 Mean	Group Sigma	Differe of Means	nce Sigme _l	D Sigma _D	Chances in 100
Semi-final	45	13.1	9 9	14.7	Ç	83.	η. Β.	96
Final	28	11.2	5	11.3	82	2.7	1.1	86
Upper Half Semi-final	12	9.4	49	10.5	Ø	53 53	. 58	73
Lower Helf Semi-finsl	37	12.3	20	20.	2	4.	٦.6	94
Upper Half Final	63	10.5	29	7.3	П	3.0	. 33	64
Lower Half Final	22	9. 8	49	9	70	23	. 93	83

Lines one snd two from Appendix A, Tsbles 10 - 14; lines three through six from Tables 15 - 18. The above Data:



master's thesis by Nielsen entitled, <u>Permanent Outcomes</u> from Teaching Plane Geometry by Two Different Methods.

One of the original premises of this paper was to compare the achievement of the two groups by the gain in achievement from semi-final to final tests. This I attempted to do graphically, but the results were not satisfactory for the purpose of drawing conclusions. Upon the suggestion of the First Reader, the table on the following page was worked up wherein the means and sigmas of the combined groups, 1948 and 1949, were presented for both tests.

This now gave a larger group with which to compare the experimental groups. Since there were the same number of pupils in each group, the mean of the combined group was easy to obtain. The sigma of the combined group was obtained by the following formula from Garrett $\frac{2}{}$:

Sigma_{Combined} =
$$\sqrt{\frac{N_1 \text{ (Sigma}^2 1 + d^2 1) + N_2 \text{ (Sigma}^2 2 + d^2 2)}{N}}$$

Dividing the difference between the group means and the combined mean by the sigma of the combined group,

^{1/} M.R. Nielsen, Permanent Outcomes from Teaching Plane Geometry by Two Different Methods, Master's Thesis, Iowa State College, 1938.

^{2/} Henry E. Garrett, Statistics in Psychology and Education, (New York, Longmans, Green and Co., 1940), p. 192

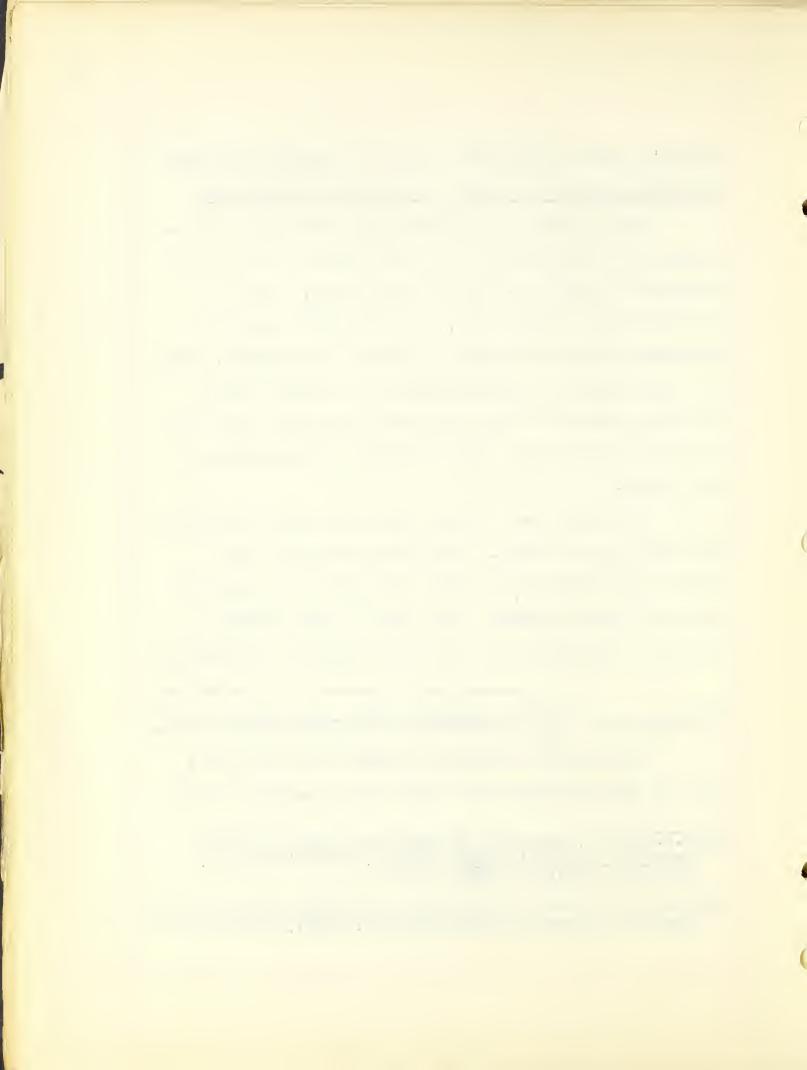


Table III. Comparison of Gains in Achievement

From Semi-Final to Final Tests

	Semi- Final	Sigma Scale	Final	Sigma Scale	Gain
Mean ₄₈ Sigma ₄₈	45 13.1	+.21	58 11.2	+.09	12
Mean ₄₉ Sigma ₄₉	39 14.7	21	55 11.3	18	+.03
Mean _C Sigma _C	42 14.3		57 11.4		

Calculation needed for combined group in above table:

Semi-Final Mean =
$$\frac{45 + 39}{2} = 42$$

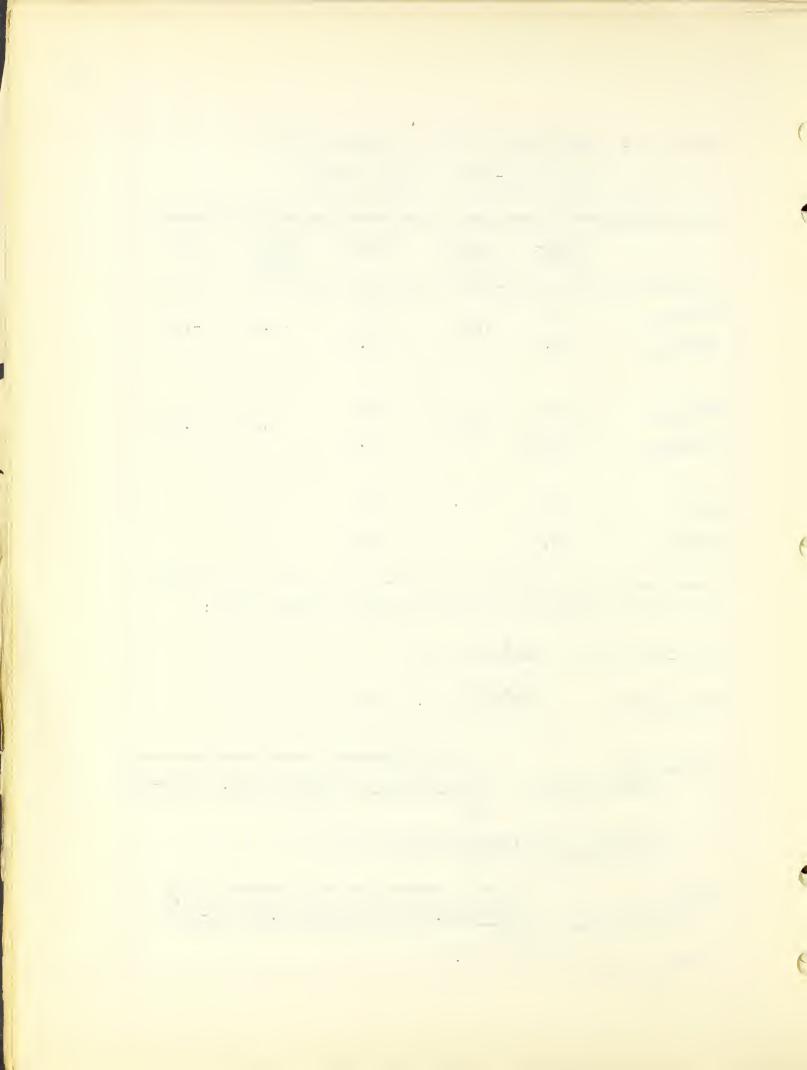
Final Mean = $\frac{58 + 55}{2} = 56.5 = 57$

Semi-Final Sigma Combined =
$$\sqrt{\frac{35(13.1^2 + 3^2) + 35(14.7^2 + (-3)^2)}{70}}$$

Sigma_{Combined} (Semi-Final) = 14.3

Final Sigma Combined =
$$\sqrt{\frac{35(11.2^2 + 1^2) + 35(11.3^2 + (-2)^2)}{70}}$$

Sigma Combined (Final) = 11.4



we obtained ratios which were used for comparison of the groups.

On the semi-final test, the 1948 group was .21 sigma above the mean and the 1949 group .21 sigma below the mean. On the final test, the 1948 group was only .13 sigma above the mean and the 1949 group was .13 sigma below the mean. The last column is interpreted to indicate that the 1948 group showed a slight loss while the 1949 group showed a slight gain.

An interesting sidelight of the experiment was the development of the Classification Table of Types of Plane Geometry Textbooks (Table 7, Appendix A). While there are only a few books included in each of the first three groups, about half of these are now published as revised or second editions. Note particularly the copyright dates of the first three groups which, with the exception of the first book in group three, first appeared about 1938-1940. Group four with by far the greatest number of books represented in it covers a period of time from 1915-1948. A closer examination of these textbooks and any others which might be available might well be the subject of another service paper.

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CHAPTER IV

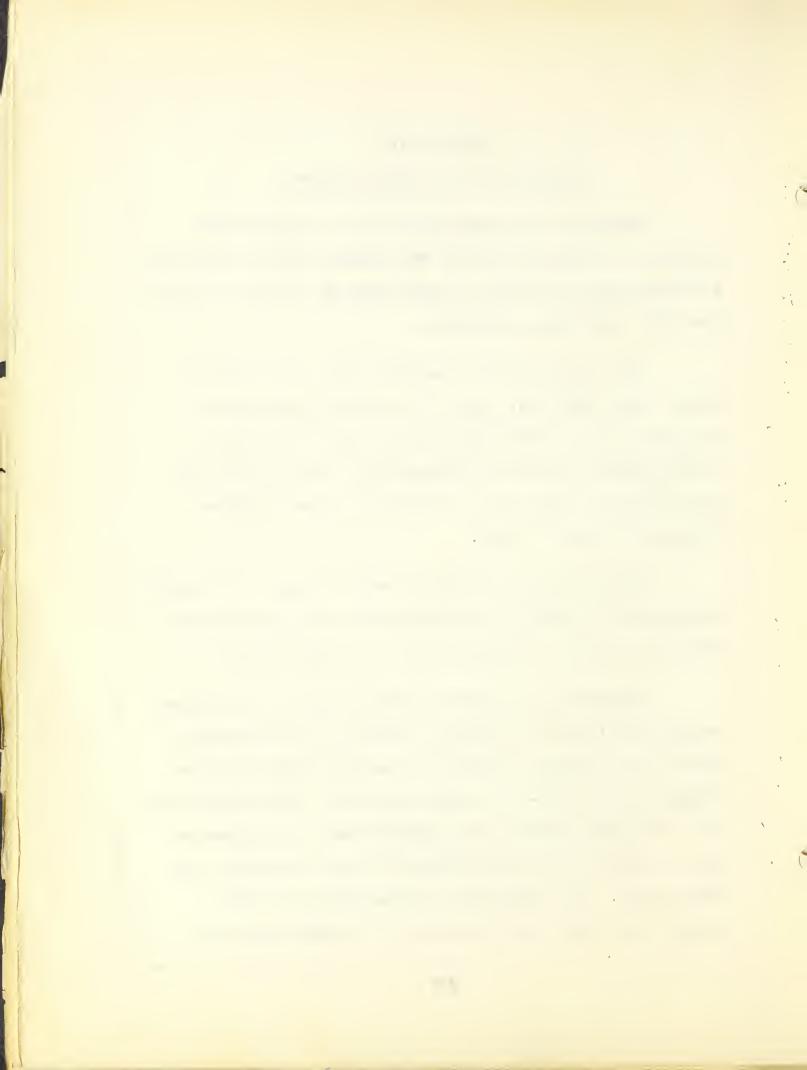
CONCLUSION IND RECOMMENDATIONS

Results of this experiment show no significant difference between the formal and informal methods relative to achievement in factual information and skills in reasoning about geometric situations.

The informal method required less time than the formal method to cover the units of work in the plane geometry course. The time saved was used for units in space geometry and loci constructions, topics which have invariably been left out of the usual course in plane geometry for lack of time.

Comparing the groups as a whole, there was a slight difference in favor of the group using the formal method; statistically this was not found to be significant.

comparing the upper and lower halves of the groups graphically (Tables 19 and 20), there was a difference in favor of the informal method for the upper halves of the groups in both semi-final and final tests. This contrasted with the lower halves of the groups where the difference was in favor of the formal method on both semi-final and final tests. All differences between whole and half groups were found to be in favor of the 1948 group, but



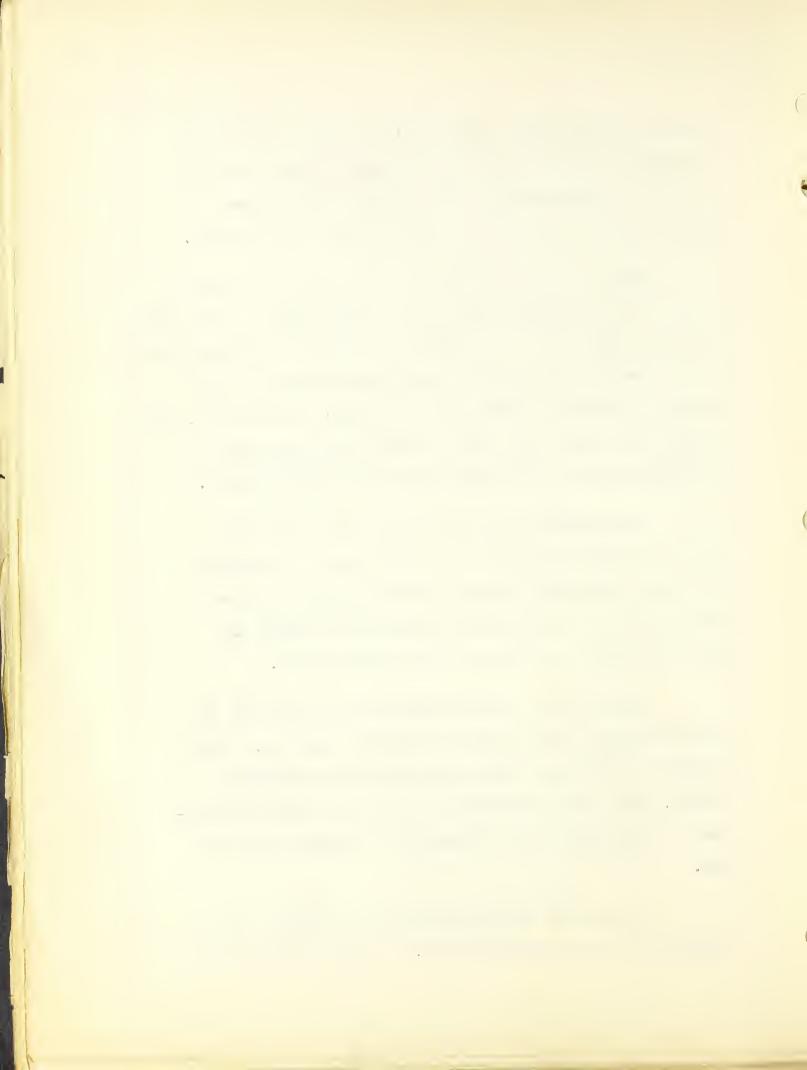
were not significant. We may well conclude that despite the material left out (proof of propositions) there was no loss in achievement by the informal group whose achievement was very close to that of the formal group.

This study does not show that either the formal method or the informal method has any measurable difference in effect upon pupil achievement, and while no statement can be made on the statistical evidence as to which is the better method of teaching plane geometry; nevertheless, the writer feels that the saving in time alone gives the informal method an advantage over the informal method.

No decision can be made from the statistical results of this experiment as to the choice of type of textbook to be used, but the writer believes that an informal-type textbook would increase the amount of time available to be used for additional units.

The results of this experiment as expressed in the conclusions are not what the writer expected. While holding a slight prejudice in favor of the informal method, every effort was made to keep this from influencing the experiment and certainly the results bear this out.

Let us next consider whether the results of this experiment are reasonable or not. A comparison of the

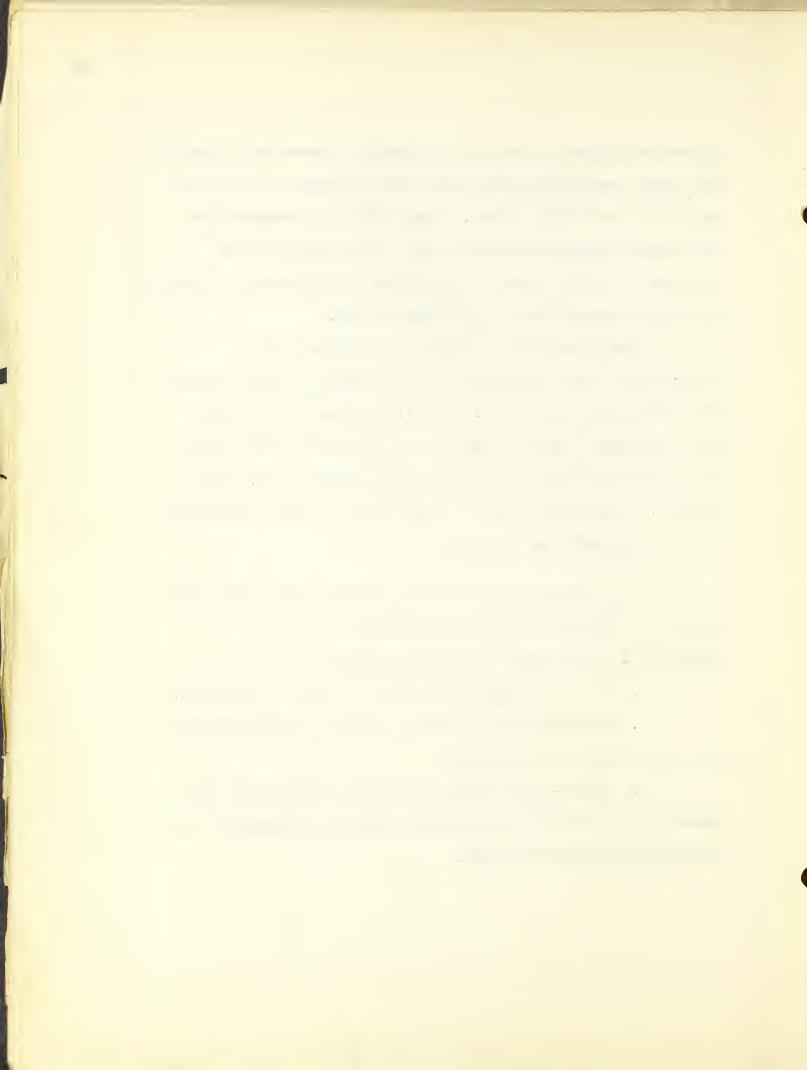


graphs of Tables 19 and 20 in /ppendix / show very clearly that the same pattern of achievement existed on both the semi-final and final tests. The difference between the two curves on each table are small and might well be considered to indicate no difference in achievement between the groups regardless of the method used.

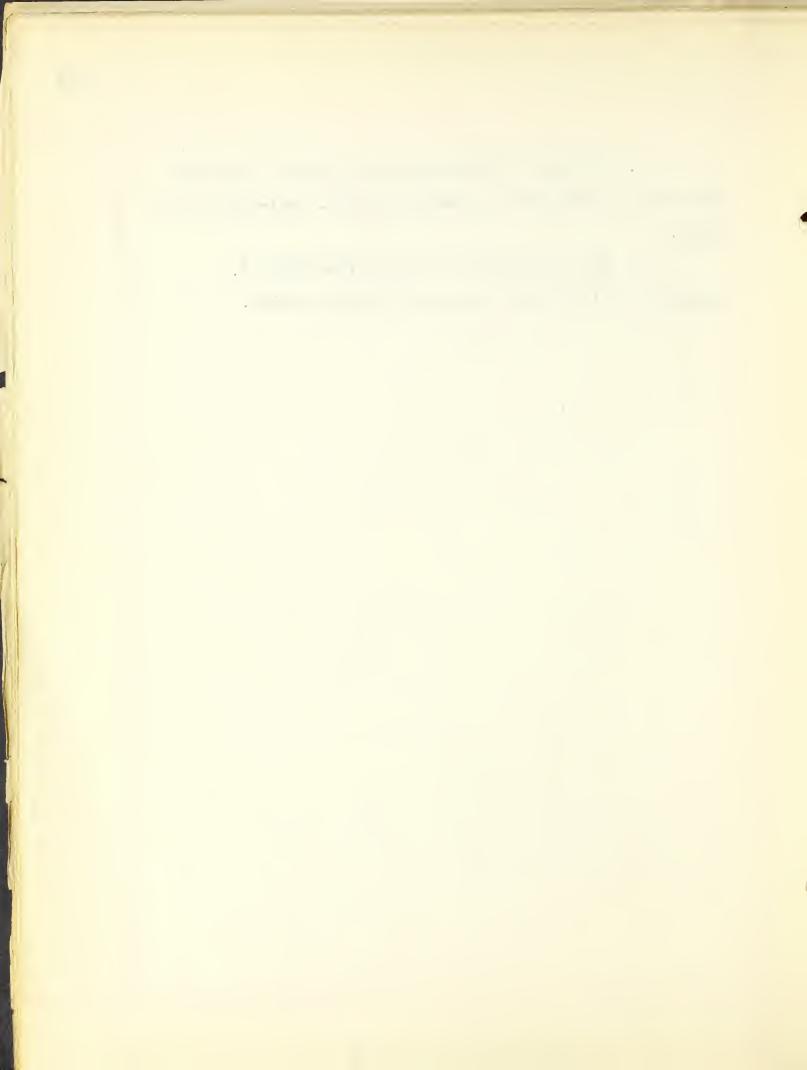
There are many factors which influence an experiment of this type, not all of which can be brought into the equating process. I have in mind an incident which happened with the 1949 group who were taking their final tests during a period of exceptionally hot, humid weather. This might well be considered to have influenced their achievement on this test.

It is recommended that this experimental paper be used as a pilot for a future experiment with the following factors being carefully checked:

- 1. Larger groups are needed for better equating.
- 2. Both methods should be used in the same school year with rotation of groups.
- 3. A pre-test should be given to determine what geometrical factors and skills the groups possessed at the beginning of the experiment.



- 4. Use the same test or other forms of the same test for the three test periods; pre-test, semi-final, and final.
- 5. Use an informal-type book (see Table 7, Appendix A) with groups using the informal method.



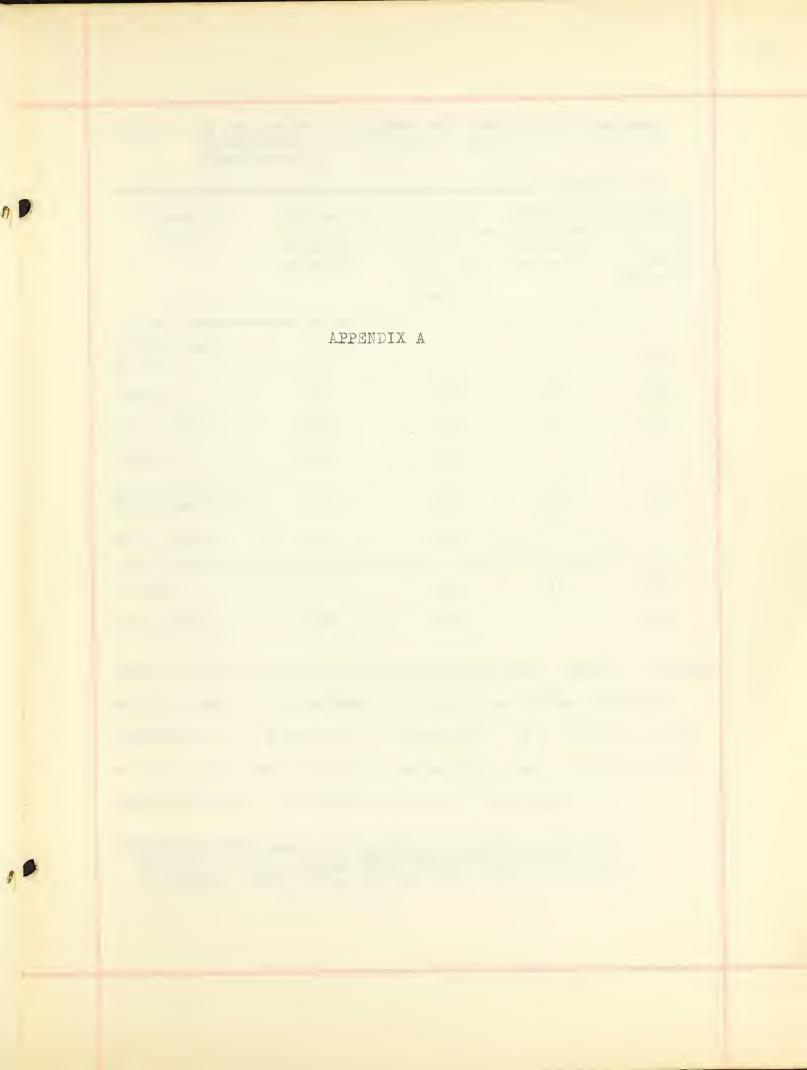




Table 1. A Comparison of Axioms and Postulates; Theorems, Corollaries, and Constructions of six often-used Textbooks. 1/

Name of Author	Axioms and Postulates of Plane Geometry	Theorems, Corollaries and Con- structions of Plane Geometry	of Solid	
Durrell and Arnold	38	196	11	153
Nyberg	52	198	15	127
Otis Clark	38	165	9	114
Seymour	48	218		
Smith, Foberg, and Reeve	33	162	16	59
Wells, Hart	29	231		
Average	40	195	12	131
This Study	32	30	4	12

Note: There may be errors in the above count because of cases where it was not clear whether or not the author intended statement for a definition, a postulate, or a theorem. Some authors also used principles, properties, and problems; and again it was not clear what these were intended for.

H.C.Christofferson, Geometry Professionalized for Teachers, George Banta Publishing Company, Menasha, Wisconsin, 1933, Table LV, p. 43

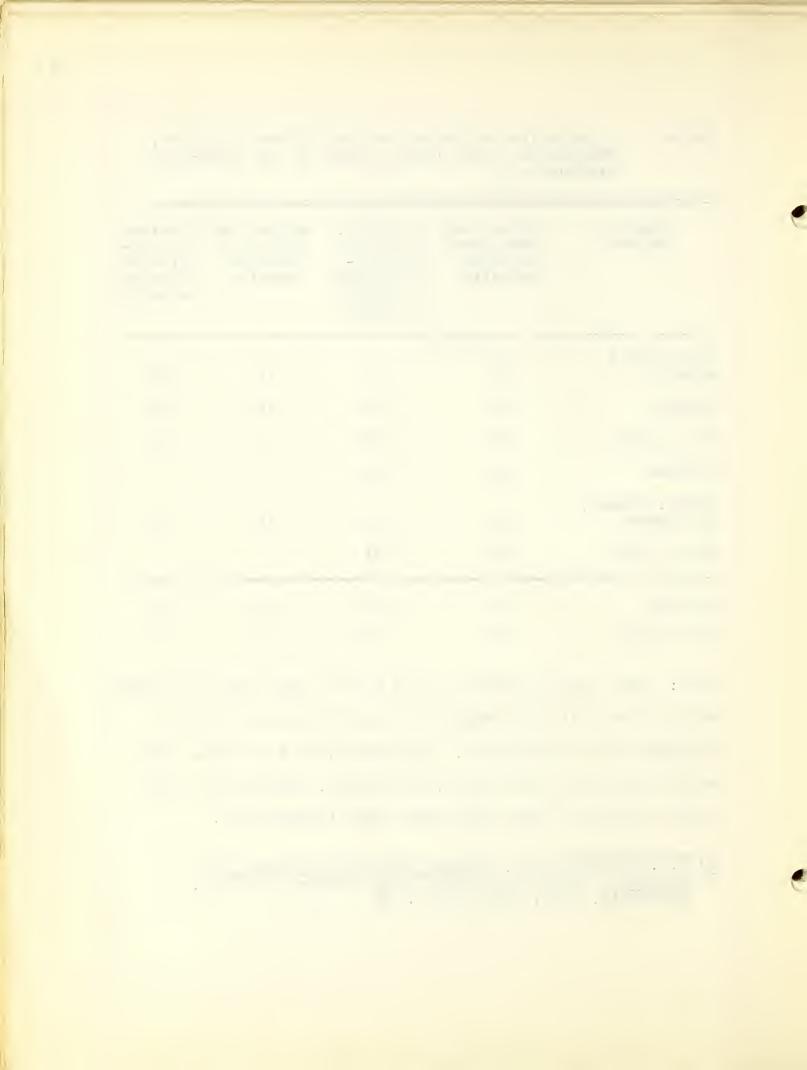


Table 2. Suggested Places in Plane Geometry in which we can Shorten, Eliminate, or Postulate to Allow Time to Introduce Space Concepts. 1/

- 1. We may omit, to be included later, the theorem, "The exterior angle of a triangle is greater than either opposite interior angle."
- 2. It is suggested that we postulate the theorem "One and only one line can be drawn from (at) a given point perpendicular to a given line."
- 3. If the hypotenuse angle congruency proposition is proved by superposition, it might be postulated.
- 4. It might be possible to postulate the theorem "If two angles have their sides respectively perpendicular, they are either equal or supplementary."
- 5. The theorem "The sum of the angles of a polygon of n sides is (n-2) straight angles" may be postulated or proved informally.
- 6. In certain texts it will be found possible to do some reversing and some combining of the theorems on the properties of a parallelogram.
- 7. In connection with inequalities in a triangle or a circle, certain theorems and corollaries might be postulated.
- 8. Group the theorems concerning interdependence of central angles, their arcs and chords; interdependence of diameters and perpendicular bisectors or chords; interdependence of tangents and radii to the points of contact.
- 9. The concurrency propositions, having been intuitively established in the introduction, may be postulated.
- 10. Eliminate harmonic division of a line segment as a separate treatment.
- 11. Substitute the algebraic for the geometric proof of the Pythagorean Theorem.

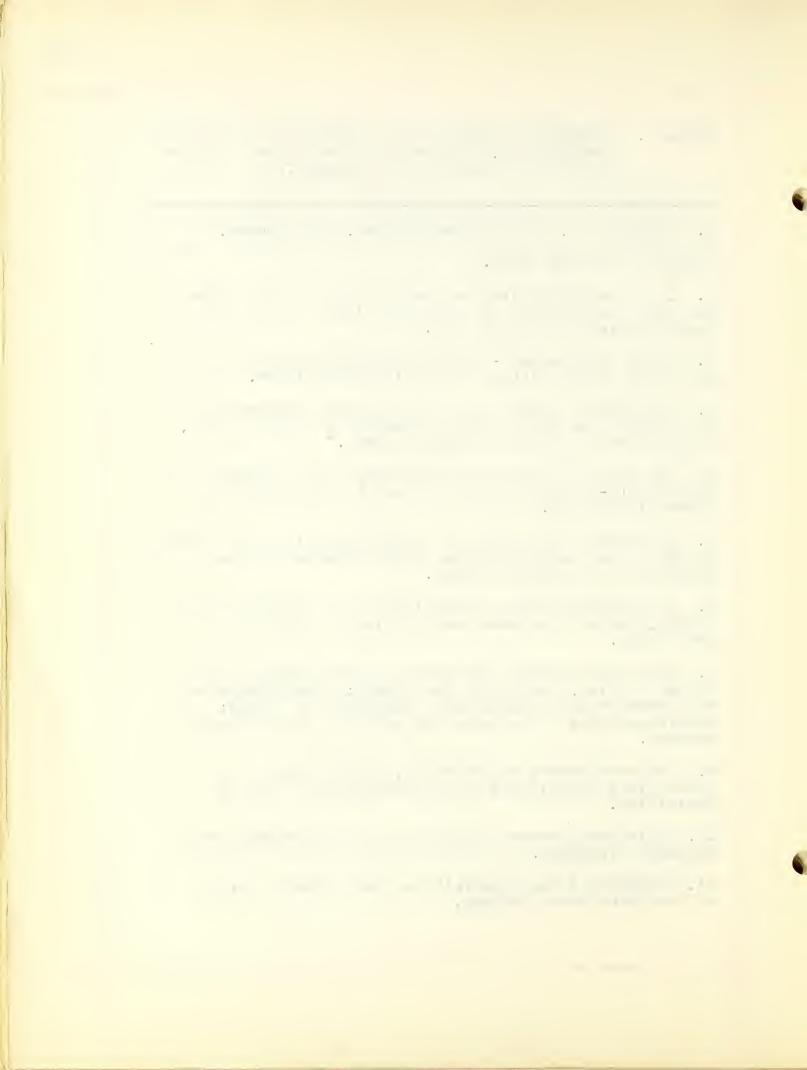
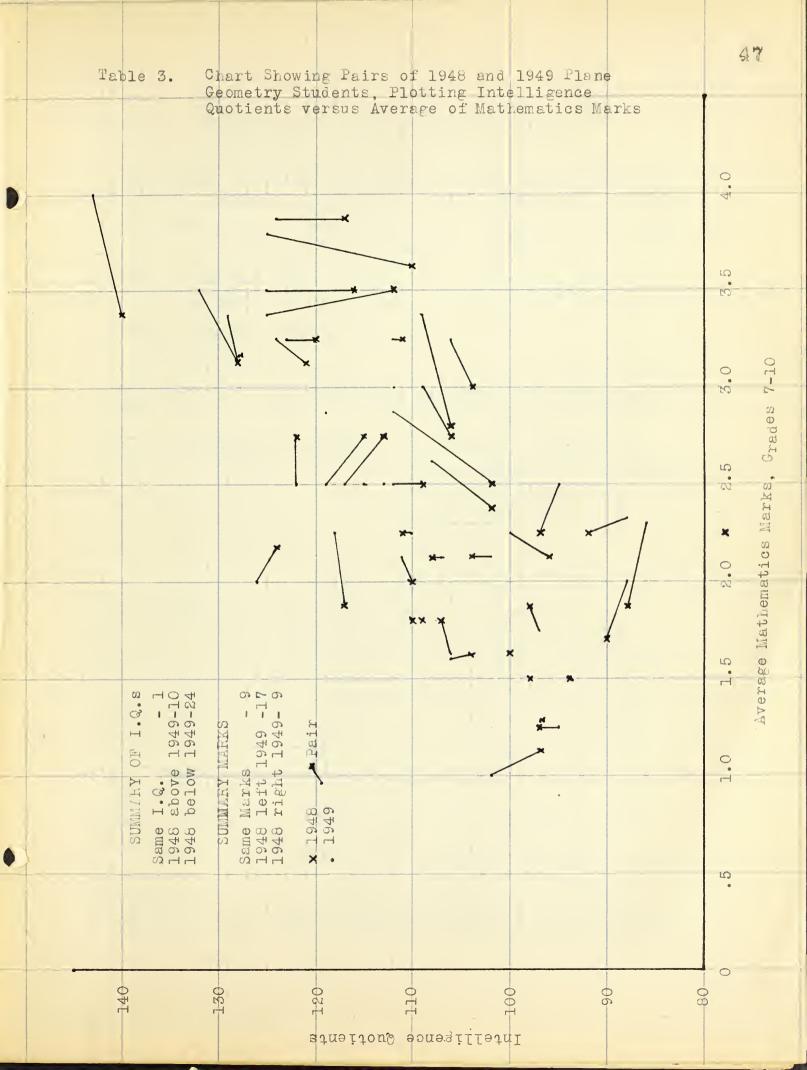


Table 2. (continued)

- 12. Eliminate the generalized Pythagorean Theorems referring to acute and obtuse triangles.
- 13. Eliminate the proof of Hero's formula or make it a matter for class discussion only.
- 14. Postulate the theorem "If two polygons are similar, they can be divided into triangles which are similar and similarly placed" and its converse.
- 15. Postulate the continuity of the Pythagorean Theorem as applied to similar polygons constructed upon the three sides of a right triangle.

^{1/} From Report of Second Annual Purdue Mathematics Workshop Committee on first six weeks in Plane Geometry, June 16 - 28, 1947



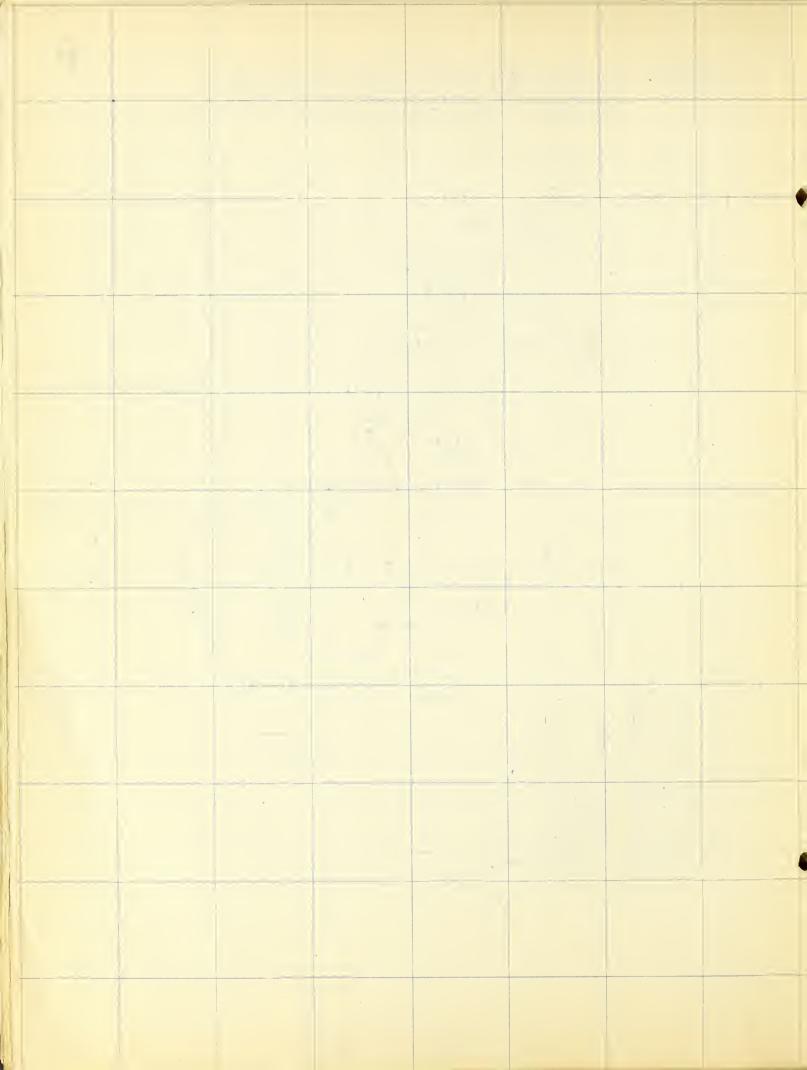


Table 4. Significance of the Difference Between the Means - Unequated Groups

1948 - 44 students Mean 104.56 = 105 Sigma = 12.05 = 12.1

1949 - 39 students Mean 112.05 = 112 Sigma = 11.98 = 12.0

Sigma_{M48} = $\frac{12.1}{\sqrt{44}}$ = $\frac{12.1}{6.63}$ = 1.91

 $Sigma_{M_{49}} = \frac{12.0}{\sqrt{39}} = \frac{12.0}{6.25} = 1.92$

Standard error of the difference between two uncorrelated means.

Sigma_D or Sigma_{M49} - Sigma_{M48} = $\sqrt{\text{Sigma}_{M49}}^2 + \text{Sigma}_{M48}^2$ = $\sqrt{1.91^2 + 1.92^2}$ = $\sqrt{7.3345}$ Sigma_D = 2.71

Significance of the difference between the means.

 $M_{49} - M_{48} = 7.48$. Chances are 68 in 100 that the difference of 7.48 does not differ from the true difference by more than $\stackrel{+}{=} 2.71$ and chances are 99 in 100 that the difference of 7.48 does not differ from the true difference by more than $\stackrel{+}{=} 3 \times 2.71 = \stackrel{+}{=} 8.13$ and lies between -.65 and +15.61. $\frac{D}{Sigma} = \frac{7.48}{2.71} = 2.76$. Using 2.76, from Garrett $\frac{1}{=}$ /, chances are 99.72 (100) or almost virtual certainty that the difference is greater than zero between the two groups.

^{1/} Henry E. Garrett, Statistics in Psychology and Education, Longmans, Green and Co., New York, 1940, Table 34, p. 213

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Table 5. Significance of the Difference Between the Means - Equated Groups

1948 - 35 students Mean 107.8 = 108 Sigma = 10.24 = 10.2 1949 - 35 students Mean 109.7 = 110 Sigma = 10.09 = 10.1

Sigma₄₈ =
$$\frac{10.2}{\sqrt{35}} = \frac{10.2}{5.91} = 1.73$$

Sigma_{M49} =
$$\frac{10.0}{\sqrt{35}} = \frac{10.1}{5.92} = 1.70$$

Standard error of the difference between two uncorrelated means.

Sigma_D or Sigma_{M49} - Sigma_{M48} =
$$\sqrt{\text{Sigma}_{M49}}^2$$
 + Sigma_{M49} = $\sqrt{1.73^2 + 1.70^2}$ = $\sqrt{5.8829}$ Sigma_D = 2.43

Significance of the difference between the means.

M₄₉ - M₄₈ = 1.9. Chances are 68 in 100 that the difference of 1.9 does not differ from the true difference by more than ½ 2.43 and chances are 99 in 100 that the difference of 1.9 does not differ from the true difference by more than ½ 3 x 2.43 = ½ 7.29 and lies between -5.39 and +9.19.

D
Sigma_D = 1.9
Sigma_D = 1.9
Sigma_D = 78. Using .80, from Garrett 1/, chances are 79 in 100 that the true difference is greater than zero. Since the lower limit is negative (-5.38), there is some chance that the true difference is less than zero.

1/ Henry E. Garrett, Statistics in Psychology and Education, Longmans, Green and Co., New York, 1940, Table 34, p. 213

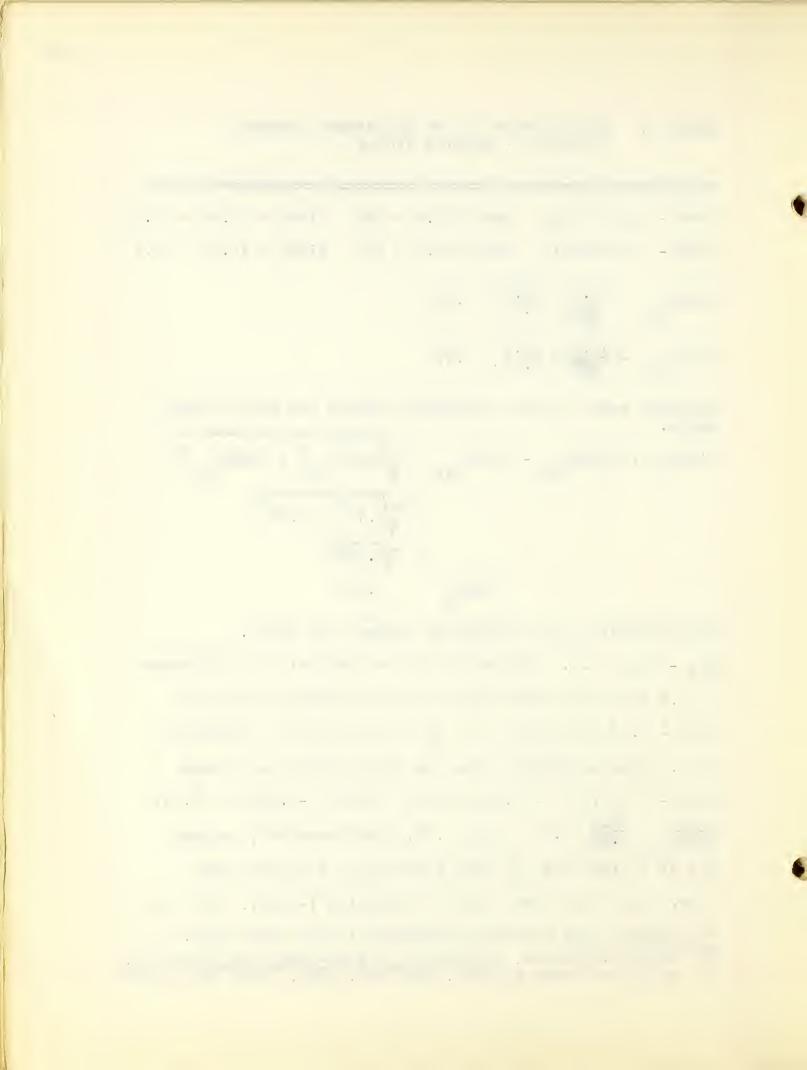


Table 6. Theorems Postulated from Welchons & Krickenberger Plane Geometry

- 1. If two triangles have two sides and the included angle of one equal respectively to two sides and the included angle of the other, the triangles are congruent.
- 2. If two triangles have two angles and the included side of one equal respectively to two angles and the included side of the other, the triangles are congruent.
- 3. If two triangles have three sides of one equal respectively to three sides of the other, the triangles are congruent.
- 4. An exterior angle of a triangle is greater than either non-adjacent interior angle.
- 5. If two lines form equal alternate interior angles with a transversal, the lines are parallel.
- 6. If two parallels are cut by a transversal, the alternate interior angles are equal.
- 7. In a circle or in equal circles equal central angles have equal arcs.
- 8. In a circle or in equal circles equal arc: have equal central angles.
- 9. If a line is tangent to a circle, it is perpendicular to the radius drawn to the part of contact.
- 10. If a line is perpendicular to a radius at the point on a circle, the line is tangent to the circle.
- 11. If a line is parallel to one side of a triangle and intersects the other two sides, it divides these sides proportionally.
- 12. If a line divides two sides of a triangle proportionally, it is parallel to the third side.
- 13. If two triangles have two angles of one equal respectively to two angles of the other, the triangles are similar.

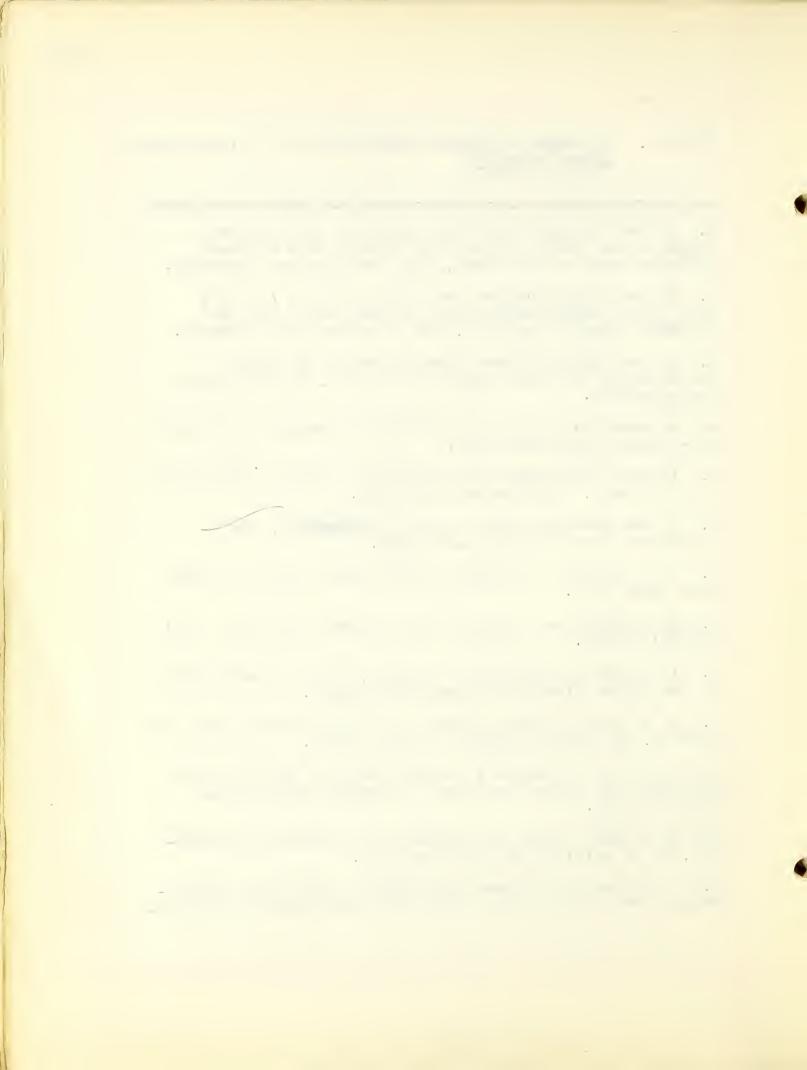


Table 6. (continued)

- 14. If two triangles have their sides respectively proportional, they are similar.
- 15. A circle can be circumscribed about any regular polygon.
- 16. If two triangles have two sides of one equal respectively to two sides of the other and the included angle of the first greater than the included angle of the second, the third side of the first is greater than the third side of the second.
- 17. If two triangles have two sides of one equal respectively to two sides of the other and the included angle of the first greater than the included angle of the second, the third side of the first is greater than the third side of the second, the angle opposite the third side of the first is greater than the angle opposite the third side of the second.
- 18. In a circle or equal circles the greater of two central angles has the greater arc.
- 19. In a circle or equal circles the greater of two unequal arcs has the greater central angle.
- 20. In a circle or in equal circles the greater of two unequal chords has the greater arc.
- 21. In a circle or in equal circles the greater of two unequal arcs has the greater chord.



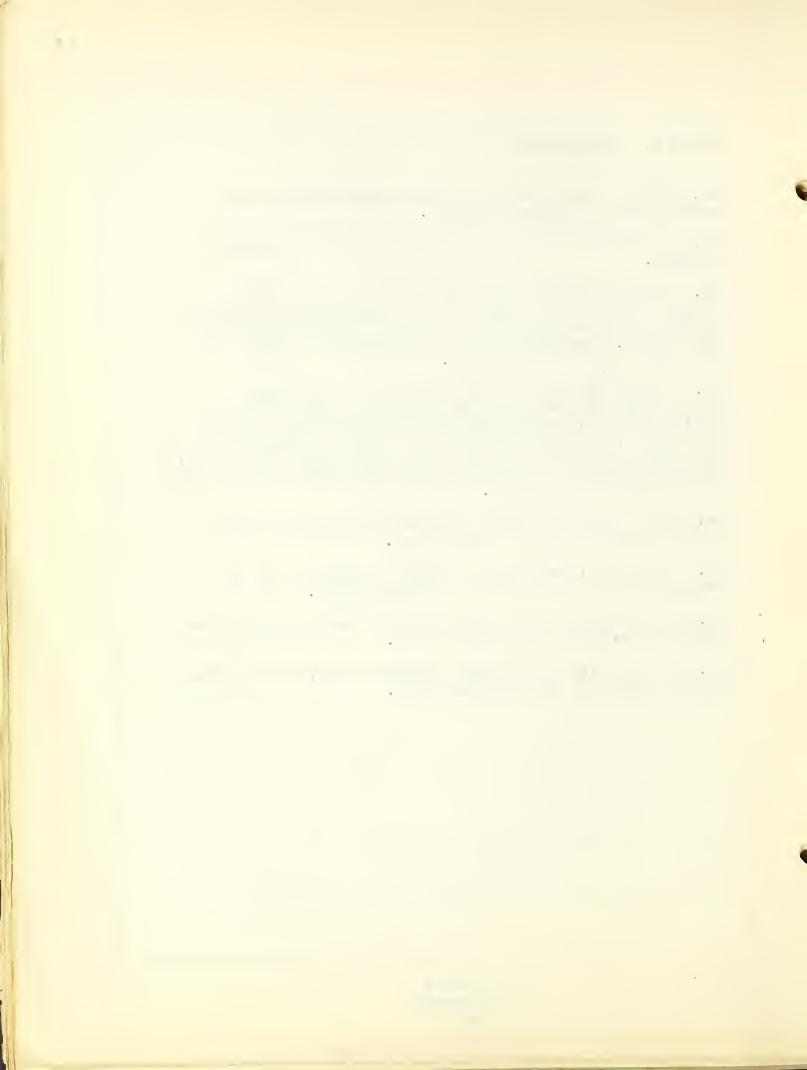


Table 7. Classification of Plane Geometry Textbooks

			,		
Title	Author	Publisher	Copyright		
Group I Many assu	med theorems; f	ew formal proofs	•		
Plane Geometry	Major	Scribner	1938		
Today's Geometry	Reichgott & Spiller	Prentice-Hall	1938		
Basic Geometry	Birkhoff & Beatley	Scott, Foresman	1940-41		
Clear Thinking	Schnell & Crawford	Harpers	1938-43		
Group II Postulation of group of about twenty theorems.					
Plane Geometry and Its Reason- ing	Barber & Hendrix	Harcourt, Brace	1937		
A New Geometry for Secondary Schools	Herberæ & Orleans	D.C.Heath	1940-48		
Group III Postula	ation of Congrue	nt Triangles			
Senior Math, Book II of Unified Math Series	Breslich	Univ. of Chicago Press	0 1910,16 23,27		
Plane Geometry	Seymour & Smith	Macmillan	1941		
Modern School Geometry	Schorling, Clark, Smith	World Book Co.	1938,43 48		

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Table 7 (continued)

Title	Author	Publisher Co	pyright
Group IV Formal p	roofs; no postu	lation of theorems.	er Gerlande gerilde maken in der Gerlande der Gerlande gerilde gerilde gerilde gerilde gerilde gerilde gerilde
New Plane Geometry	Robbins	American	1915
Modern Plane Geometry	Stone- Mallory	Sanborn	1929
New Plane Geometry	Durrell & Arnold	Merrill	1916,17
Plane Geometry	Seymour	American	1925,31
Progressive Plane Geometry	Wells & Hart	D.C.Heath	1935
Plane Geometry and Its Uses	Mirick, Newell & Harper	Row-Peterson	1935
Plane Geometry and Related Subjects	Breslich	Laidlow	1910,16, 23,27, 35
Plane Geometry	Schulze- Sevenoak- Stone	Macmillan	1936
Plane Geometry	Morgan- Foberg- Breckenridge	Houghton Mifflin	1937
Plane Geometry of Purposeful Math Series	Breslich	Laidlow	1938
New Plane Geometry	Stone- Mallory	Sanborn	1938
Plane Geometry	Welchons & Krickenberge	Ginn r	1933,38

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Table 7 (continued)

Title	Author	Publisher	Copyright
Fundamentals of Plane Geometry	Nyberg	American	1944
Plane Geometry	Avery	Allyn & Bacon	1947
New Plane Geometry	Smith-Marino	Merrill	1948



Table 8. Timetable of Work - 1948 Group vs. 1949 Group

CONTRACTOR OF THE PROPERTY OF		s taken by 18 Group	Days taken by 1949 Group	Difference
1.	Introduction	15	11	+4
2.	Triangles	21	19	+2
3.	Parallels and Perpendiculars	27	19	+8
4.	Constructions	5	6	-1
5.	Polygons	21	19	+2
	Half-year Totals	89	74	+15
6.	Area of Polygons	19	20	-1
7.	Circles, Angles, and Arcs	13	12	+1
8.	Measurement of Angles and Arcs	12	12	0
9.	Loci	13	20	-7
10.	Proportion	11	9	+2
11.	Similar Polygons	13	13	0
12.	Regular Polygons and the Circle Totals	<u>5</u>	<u>5</u> 165	<u> </u>
x	Space Geometry	0	10	-10

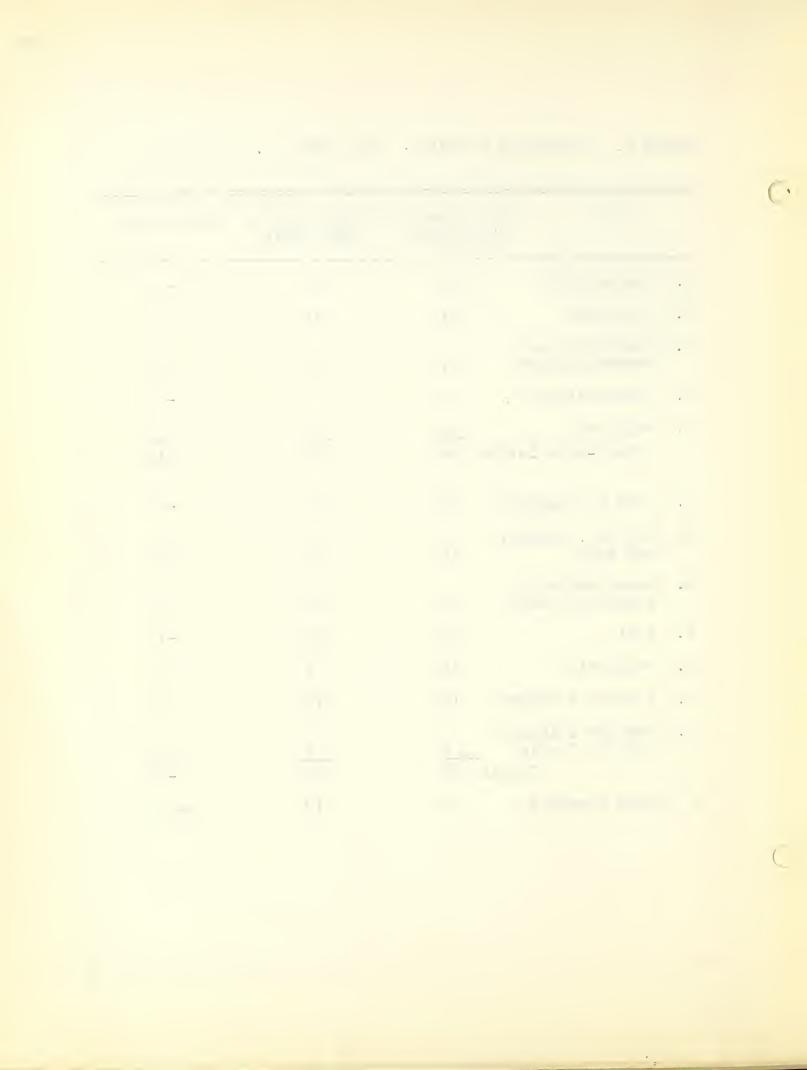


Table 9. Semi-Final and Final Test Scores for 1948 and 1949 Groups

	1948 Group			1949 Group	
IQ	Semi-final		Iŝ	Semi-final	Final
140	57	68	125	59	67
128	56	71	125	65	72
128	62	68	125	62	68
124	34	54	124	67	73
122	34	67	124	55	50
121	53	66	123	37	58
120	52	65	122	42	58
117	43	64	119	26	61
117	60	70	118	36	56
116	66	71	117	36	55
115	44	50	115	52	61
113	54	49	113	58	64
112	61	79	112	52	63
111	50	68	112	45	71
111	59	70	112	44	67
110	62	68	112	44	51
110	43	50	111	33	53
110	42	41	110	42	61
109	28	50	109	50	56
109	35	26	109	50	63
108	25	57	108	33	49
107	43	49	107	39	55
106	49	55	106	33	53
106	58	67	106	17	29
104	58	64	106	15	35
104	33	60	102	31	53
104	24	51	102	28	54
102	55	62	100	38	35
102	26	43	98	22	53
100	31	49	98	14	49

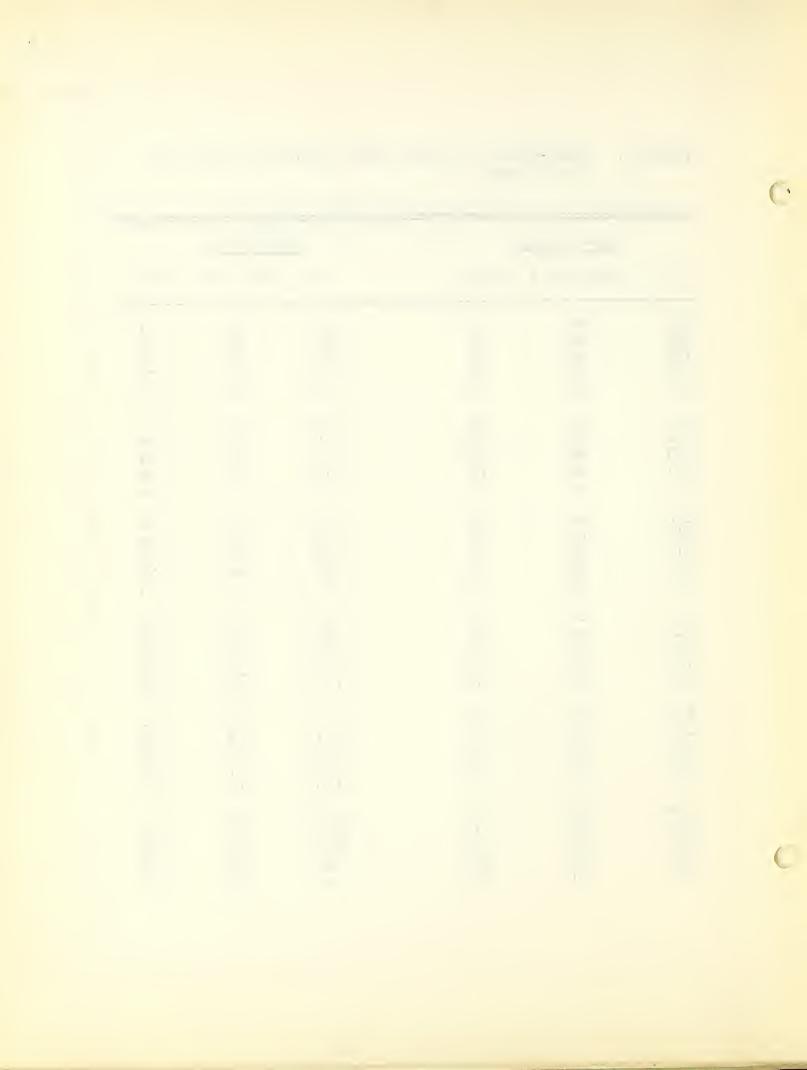


Table 9. (continued)

	1948 Group		1	949 Group	
IQ	Semi-final	Final	IQ	Semi-final I	Final
98 98 98 97 97	34 34 24 24 23	41 53 48 48 63	97 97 95 95 86	42 12 13 38 39	55 43 48 57 23
Means 108	45	58	110	39	55
Sigmas 102	13.1	11.2	10.1	14.7	11.3



Table 10. Conversion of 1948 Semi-Final Scores to Sigma Scale and T-Scores.

Score	đ	ā ²	Sigme Scale	T-Score
66	21	441	1.62	66.2
62	17	289	1.31	63.1
62	17	289	1.31	63.1
61	16	256	1.23	62.3
60	15	225	1.15	61.5
59	14	196	1.08	60.8
58	13	169	1.00	60.0
58	13	169	1.00	60.0
57	12	144	.92	59.2
56	11	121	.85	58.5
55	10	100	.77	57.7
54	9	81	.69	56.9
53	8	64	.62	56.2
53	8	64	.62	56.2
52	7	49	.54	55.4
50 49 44 43	5 4 -1 -2 -2	25 16 1 4 4	.38 .31 08 15 15	53.8 53.1 49.2 48.5 48.5
43 42 35 34 34	-2 -3 -10 -11	4 9 100 121 121	15 23 77 85 85	48.5 47.7 42.3 41.5 41.5
34	-11	121	85	41.5
34	-11	121	85	41.5
33	-12	144	92	40.8
31	-14	196	-1.08	39.2
28	-17	289	-1.31	36.9

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Table 10	. (continued)	

Score	đ	đ ²	Sigma Scale	T-Score
26 25 24 24 24 24 35 1566 44.74	-19 -20 -21 -21 -21	361 400 441 441 441 35 6017 171.91	-1.31 -1.54 -1.62 -1.62 -1.62	36.9 34.6 33.8 33.8 33.8

Mean = 45 Sigma = 13.1

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Table 11. Conversion of 1949 Semi-Final Scores to Sigma Scale and T-Scores

Score	đ	a ²	Sigma Scale	T-Score
67 65 62 59 58	28 26 23 20 19	784 676 529 400 361	1.9 1.77 1.56 1.36 1.29	69.0 67.7 65.6 63.6 62.9
55 52 51 50 50	16 13 12 11	256 169 144 121 121	1.09 .95 .86 .75	60.9 58.5 58.2 57.5 57.5
45 44 44 42 42	6 5 5 3 3	36 25 25 9	.41 .34 .34 .20 .20	54.1 53.4 53.4 52.0 52.0
42 39 39 38 38	3 0 0 -1 -1	9	.20 0 0 07 07	52.0 50. 50. 49.3 49.3
37 36 36 33 33	-2 -3 -3 -6 -6	4 9 9 36 36	14 20 20 41 41	48.6 48.0 48.0 45.9
33 31 28 26 22	-6 -8 -11 -13 -17	36 64 121 169 289	41 54 75 95 -1.16	45.9 44.6 42.5 40.5 38.4

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Table 11. (continued)

Score	đ	d ²	Sigma Scale	T-Score
17 15 14 13 12 35 1368 39.08	-22 -24 -25 -26 -27	484 576 625 676 729 35 7539 215.4	-1.50 -1.63 -1.7 -1.77 -1.84	35.0 33.7 33.0 32.3 31.6

Mean = 39

Sigma = 14.7

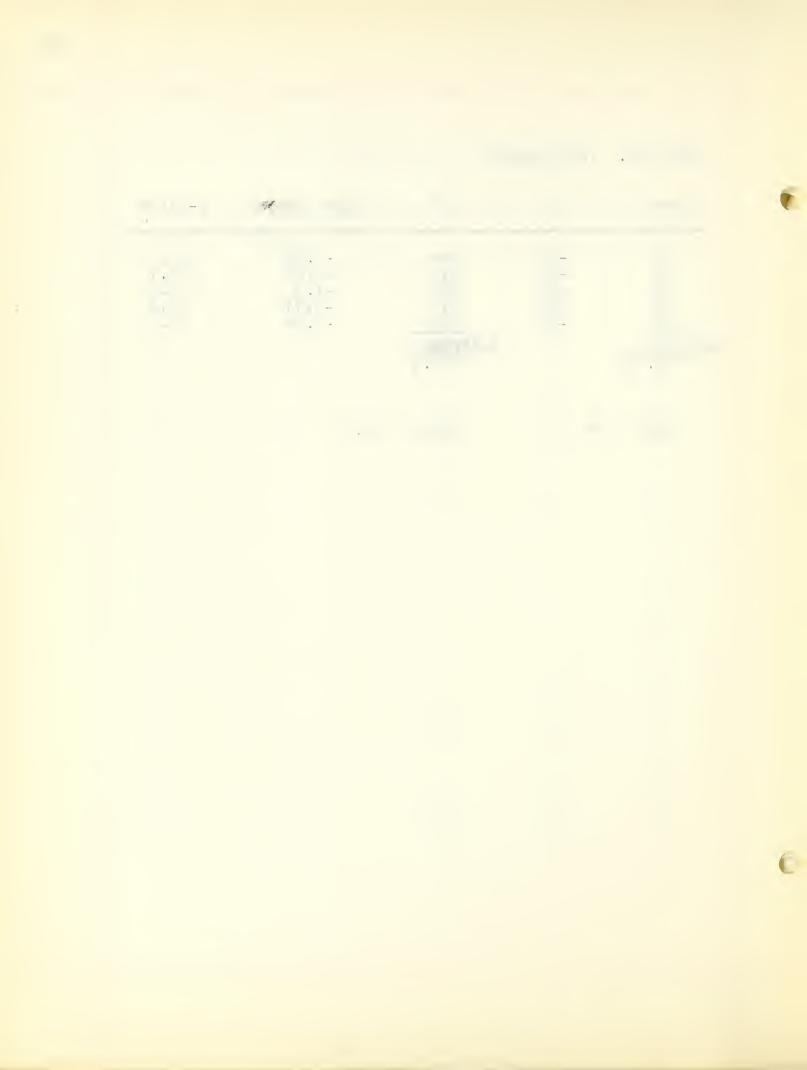


Table 12. Conversion of 1948 Final Scores to Sigma Scale and T-Scores

Score	đ	d ²	Sigma Scale	T-Score
79 71 71 70 70	21 13 13 12 12	441 169 169 144 144	19.1 11.8 11.8 10.9	69.1 61.8 61.8 60.9 60.9
68 68 68 68	10 10 10 10 9	100 100 100 100 81	9.1 9.1 9.1 9.1 8.2	59.1 59.1 59.1 59.1 58.2
67 66 65 64 64	9 8 7 6 6	81 64 49 36 36	8.2 7.3 6.4 5.5	58.2 57.3 56.4 55.5 55.5
63 62 60 5 7 55	5 4 2 -1 -3	25 16 4 1 9	4.5 3.6 1.8 .9	54.5 53.6 51.8 49.1 47.3
54 53 51 50 50	-4 -5 -7 -8 -8	16 25 49 64 64	-3.6 -4.5 -6.4 -7.3 -7.3	46.4 45.5 43.6 42.7 42.7
50 49 49 49 48	-8 -9 -9 -9	64 81 81 81 100	-7.3 -8.2 -8.2 -8.2 -9.1	42.7 41.8 41.8 41.8 40.9

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Table 12 (continued)

Score	đ	đ ²	Sigma Scale	T-Score
48 43 41 41 26 35 2025 57.57	-10 -15 -17 -17 -32	100 225 289 289 1024 35 4421 126.3	-9.1 -13.6 -15.4 -15.4 -29.0	40.9 36.4 34.6 34.6 21.0

Mean = 58

Sigma = 11.2

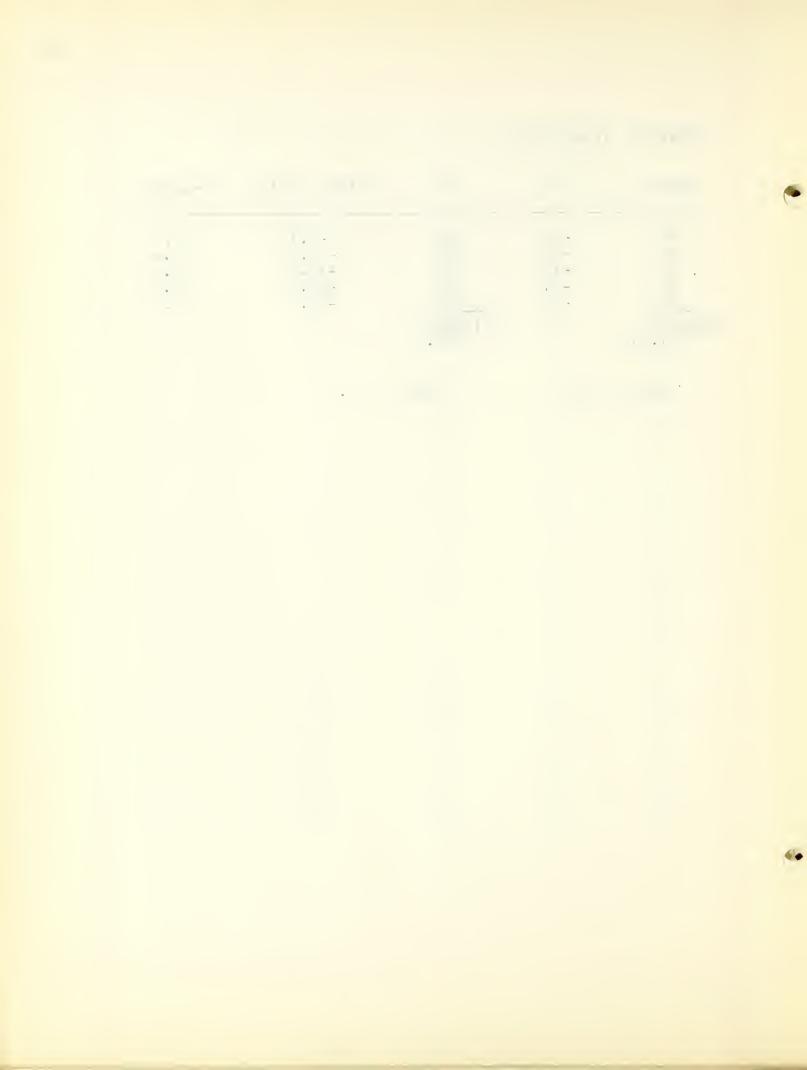


Table 13. Conversion of 1949 Final Scores to Sigma Scale and T-Scores

Score	đ	d ²	Sigma Scale	T-Score
· 73 72 71 68 67	18 17 16 13	324 289 256 169 144	16.4 15.5 14.5 12.8 10.9	66.4 65.5 64.5 61.8 60.9
67 64 63 63 61	12 9 8 8 6	144 81 64 64 36	10.9 8.2 7.3 7.3 5.5	60.9 58.2 57.3 57.3
61 61 58 58 57	6 6 3 3 2	36 36 9 9	5.5 5.5 2.7 2.7	55.5 55.5 52.7 52.7 51.8
56 56 55 55	1 0 0 0	1	.9 .9 .0 .0	50.9 50.9 50.0 50.0
54 53 53 53 53	-1 -2 -2 -2 -2	1 4 4 4 4	-1.8 -1.8 -1.8 -1.8	49.1 48.2 48.2 48.2 48.2
51 50 49 49	-4 -5 -6 -6 -7	16 25 36 36 49	-3.6 -4.5 -5.5 -5.5 -6.4	46.4 45.6 44.5 44.5 43.6

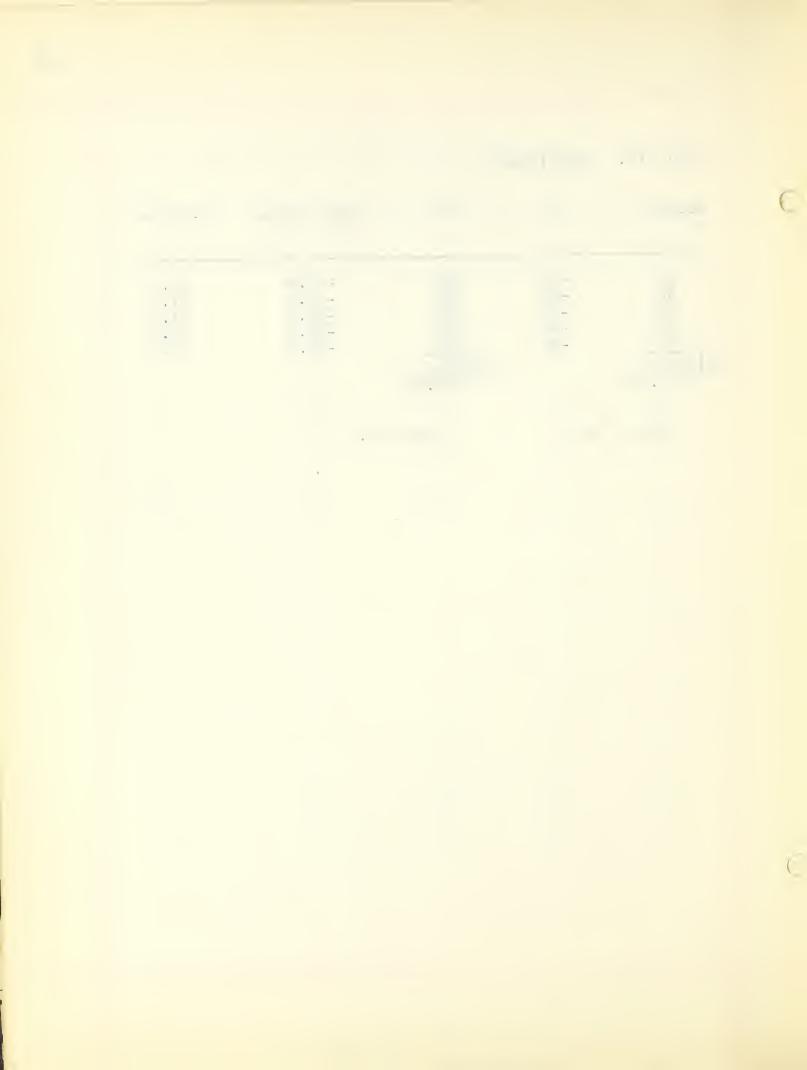
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Table 13. (continued)

Score	đ	ā ²	Sigma Scale	T-Score
43 35 35 29 23 35 1919 54.82	-12 -20 -20 -26 -32	144 400 400 676 1024 35 4490 128.28	-10.9 -18.2 -18.2 -23.6 -29.1	39.1 31.8 31.8 26.4 20.9

Mean = 55

Sigma 11.3



Significance of the Differences between the Table 14. Means of the 1948 and 1949 Groups on the Semi-Final and Final Test Scores

Semi-Final Test

35 Students Mean = 45 Sigma = 13.1 1948

35 Students Mean = 39 Sigma = 14.7 1949

Sigma_{M48} = $\frac{13.1}{\sqrt{35}}$ = 2.22 Sigma_{M49} = $\frac{14.7}{\sqrt{35}}$ = 2.48 Sigma_D or Sigma_{M48} - Sigma_{M49} = $\sqrt{2.22^2 + 2.48^2}$

 $\frac{D}{\text{Sigma}_D} = \frac{6}{3.3} = 1.8$ $Sigma_D = 3.3$

*From Garrett Table 34, p. 213. Chances are 96 in 100

Final Test В.

1948 35 Students Mean = 58 Sigma = 11.2

35 Students Mean = 55 Sigma = 11.3 1949

Sigma_{M₄₈} = $\frac{11.2}{\sqrt{35}}$ = 1.90 Sigma_{M₄₉} = $\frac{11.3}{\sqrt{35}}$ = 1.92

Sigma_D or Sigma_{M48} - Sigma_{M49} = $\sqrt{1.90^2 + 1.92^2}$

 $\frac{D}{\text{Sigma}_{D}} = \frac{3.0}{2.7} = 1.1^*$ $Sigma_D = 2.7$

*From Garrett Table 34, p. 213. Chance: are 86 in 100

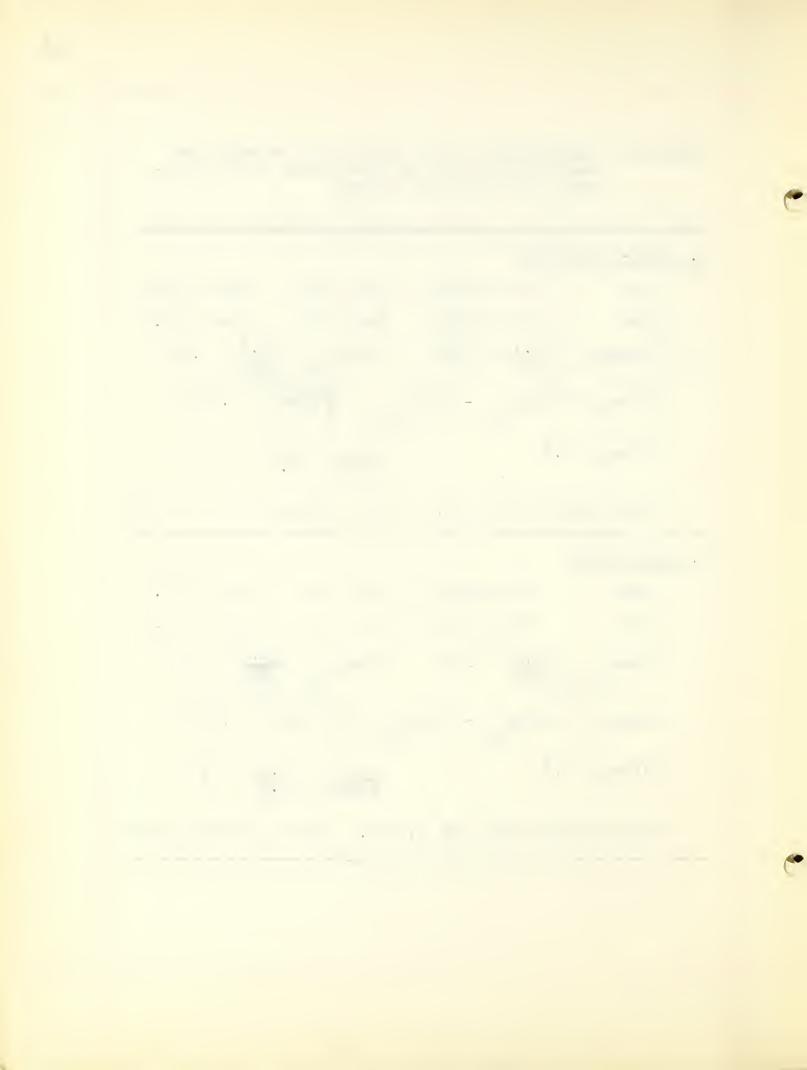


Table 15. Comparison of Scores and Significance of the Difference between the Means for the Upper Halves of the Groups on Semi-Final Tests

S	Upper Hal:	f of 19	9		alf of l	949 Group d ²
-	66 62 62 61 60	15 11 11 10 9	225 121 121 100 81	67 65 62 59 58	18 16 13 10	324 256 169 100 81
	59 56 54 53 52	8 5 3 2 1	64 25 9 4	44 52 51 45 44	6 3 2 -4 -5	36 9 4 16 25
	52 44 43 43 42	-1 -7 -8 -8	1 49 64 64 81	44 42 42 3 7 36	-5 -7 -7 -12 -13	25 49 49 144 169
17	34 34 8875 51	-17 -17	289 289 17 1588.0 93.41	36 33 17 1 828 48.7	-13 -16	169 256 17 1881 110.64
	Mean = 51		Sigma = 9.7	Meen = 49) S	igma = 10.5
	Sigma _D	of Upp	per Halves			
	$M_{48} - M_{49} = 51 - 49 = 2.0$ $Sigma_{M_{48}} = \frac{9.7}{\sqrt{17}} = 2.34$			$\frac{D}{\text{Sigma}} = \frac{2.0}{3.5} = .58$		
	$Sigma_{M_{49}} = \frac{10.5}{V17} = 2.55$			From Garrett Table 34 at .6 Chances are 73 in 100		
		•	1 ² + 2.55 ²			
	Sigma _D =	3.5				

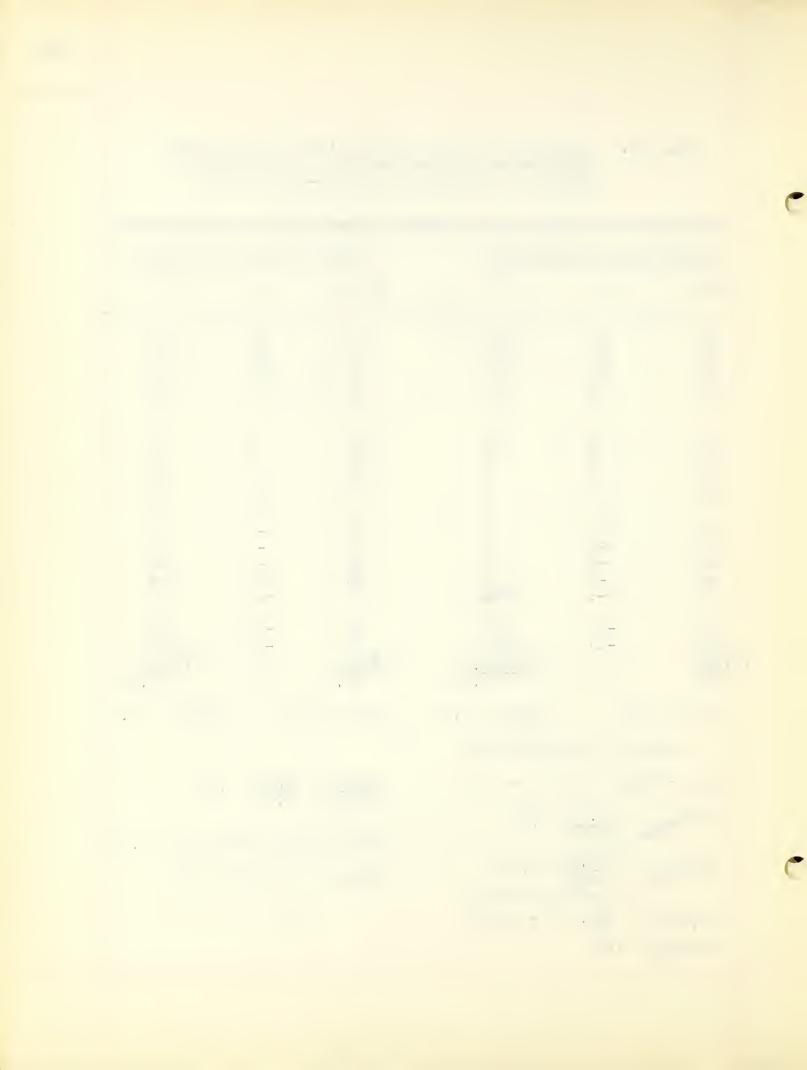


Table 16. Comparison of Scores and Significance of the difference between the Means for the Lower Halves of the Groups on Semi-Final Tests

Lower	Half of 19	48 Group	Lower Ha	lf of	1949 Group
Score	đ	ā. ²	Score	đ	a ²
58 58 55 53 49	22 21 18 16 12	441 441 324 256 144	50 50 42 39 39	20 20 12 9	400 400 144 81 81
43 35 34 34 33	6 -2 -3 -3 -4	36 4 9 9	38 38 33 33 31	8 8 3 3	64 64 9 9
31 28 26 25 24	-6 -9 -11 -12 -13	36 81 121 144 169	28 22 17 15 14	-2 -8 -13 -15 -16	4 64 169 225 256
24 24 634 37.2	-13 -13	169 169 17 2569 151.1	13 12 17 514 30.2	-17 -18	289 324 17 2584 152
Mean	= 37	Sigma = 12.3	Mean = 30		Sigma = 12.

Sigma of Lower Halves

$$M_{48} - M_{49} = 37 - 30 = 7.0$$
 $Sigma_{M_{48}} = \frac{12.3}{\sqrt{17}} = 2.98$
 $Sigma_{M_{49}} = \frac{12.3}{\sqrt{17}} = 2.90$
 $Sigma_{D} = \sqrt{2.98^2 + 2.98^2}$

 $Sigma_D = 4.2$

$$\frac{D}{\text{Sigma}_D} = \frac{7.0}{4.2} = 1.6$$

From Garrett Table 34 at 1.60 Chances are 94 in 100

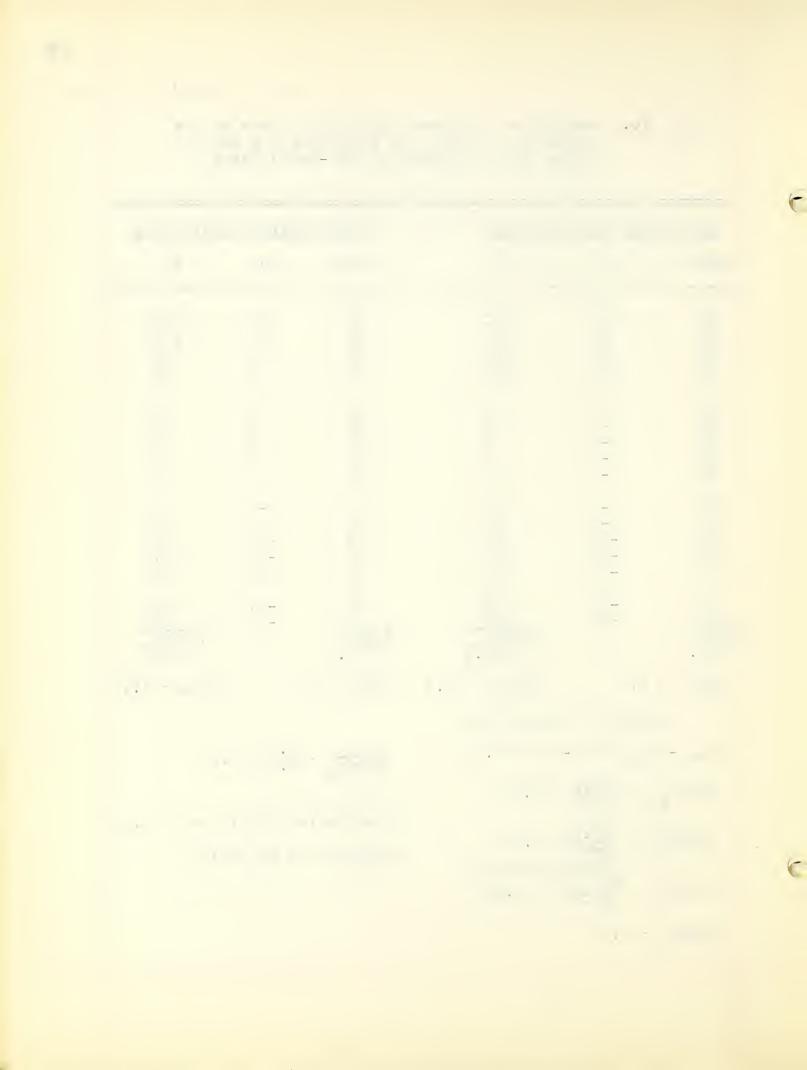


Table 17. Comparison of Scores and Significance of the Difference between the Means for the Upper Halves of the groups on Final Tests

Upper	Half of 19	48 Group	Upper	Half of]	1949 Group
Score	đ	a ²	Score	đ	d ²
79 71 71 70 70	16 8 8 7 7	256 64 64 49	73 72 71 68 67	12 11 10 6 5	144 121 100 36 25
68 68 68 67 66	5 5 5 4 3	25 25 25 16 9	67 64 63 61 31	5 2 1 -1 -1	25 4 1 1
65 64 54 50 50	2 1 -9 -13 -13	4 1 81 169 169	58 58 56 55 53	-4 -4 -6 -6	16 16 36 36 81
49 41 1071 63	-14 -22	199 484 17 1689 99.3	51 50 17 1048 61.6	-11 -12	121 144 17 9080 53.41
Mean =	63	Sigma = 10	Mean = 6	52	Sigma = 7.
	Sigma _D of U	pper Halves			
	$M_{49} = 63 - \frac{10}{17} = $		$\frac{\mathtt{D}}{\mathtt{Sigma}_{\mathtt{D}}}$	= 1.0 =	.33
Sigma	$1_{49} = \frac{7.3}{\sqrt{17}} = \sqrt{2.41}$	1.78		arrett Ta	ble 34 at .:

 $Sigma_D = 3.0$

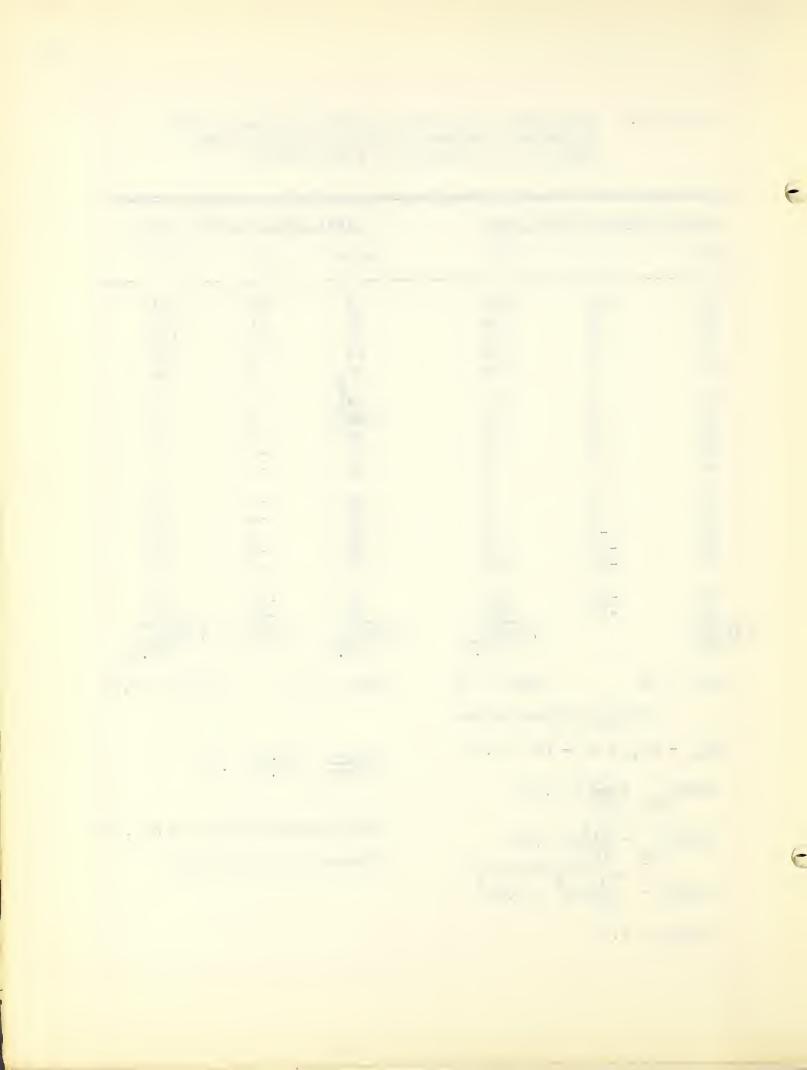
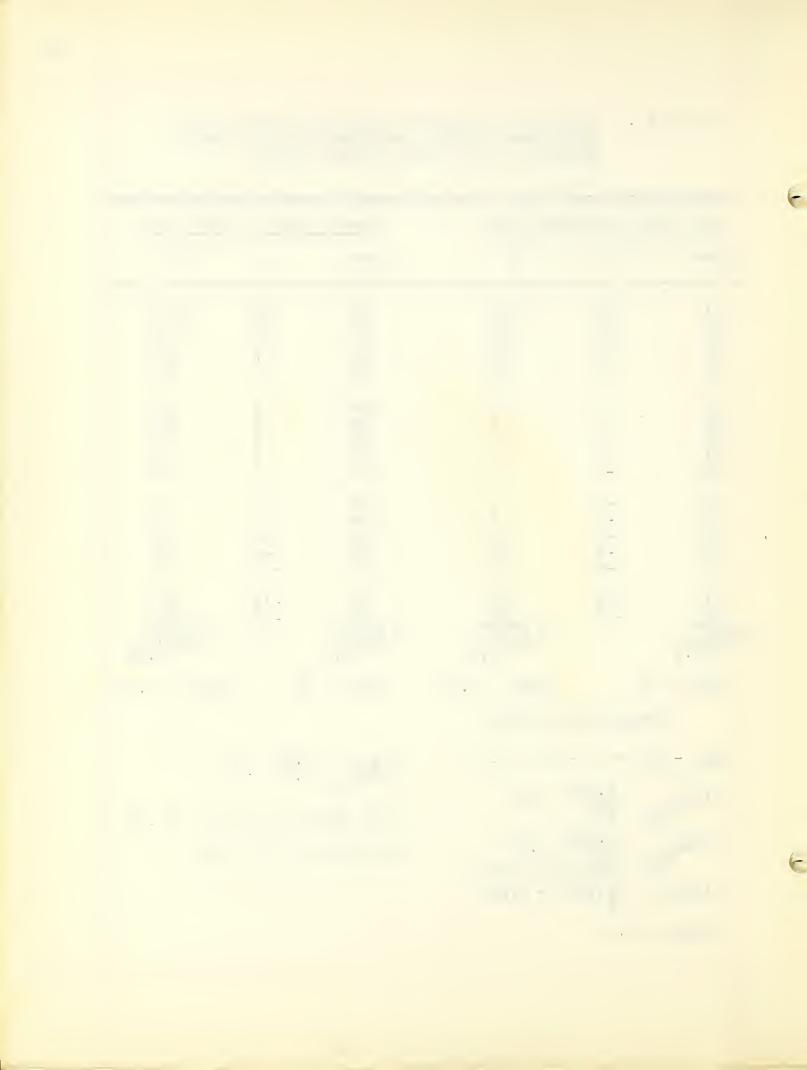
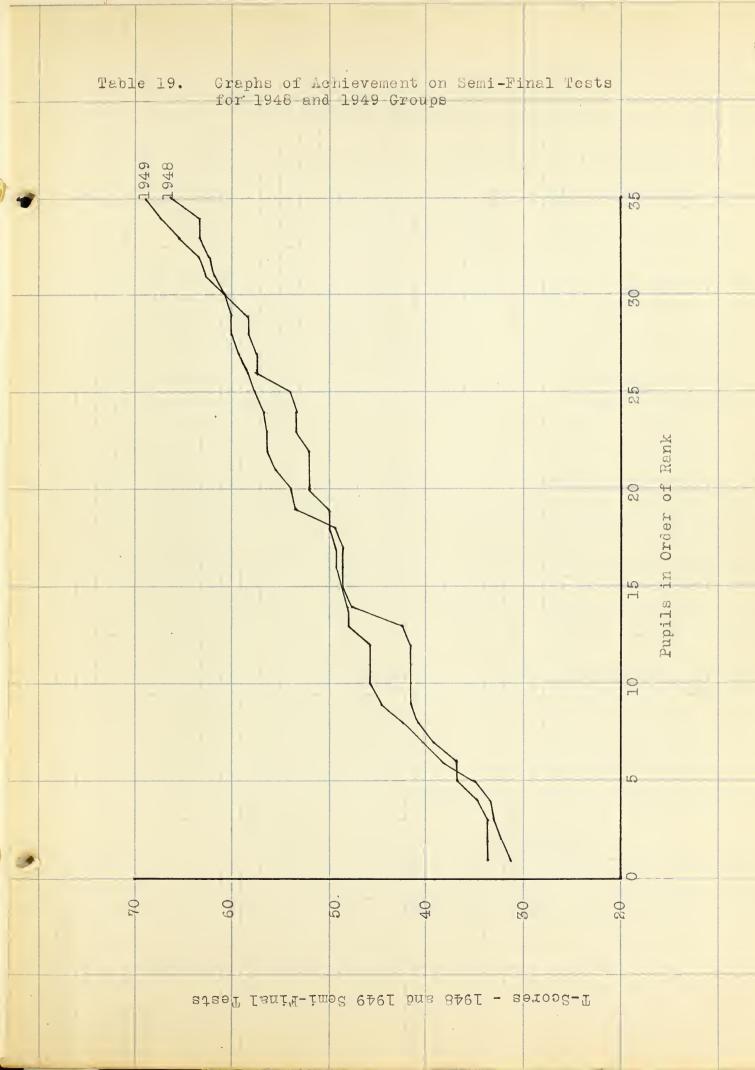
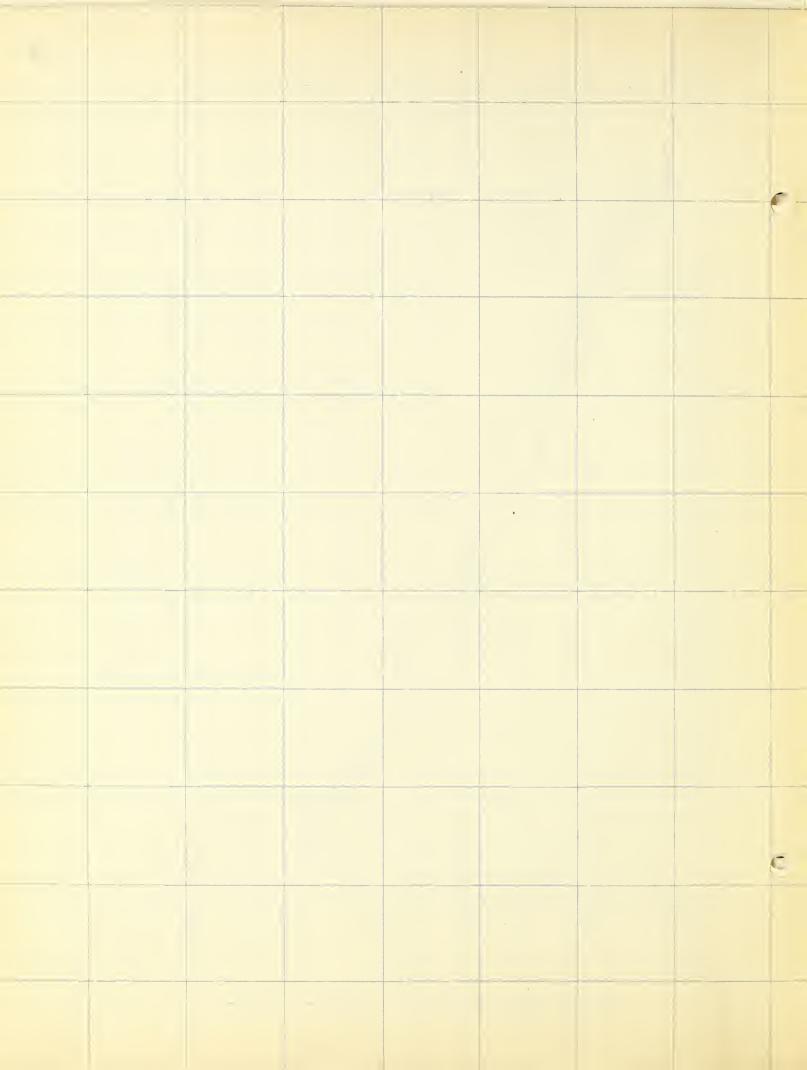


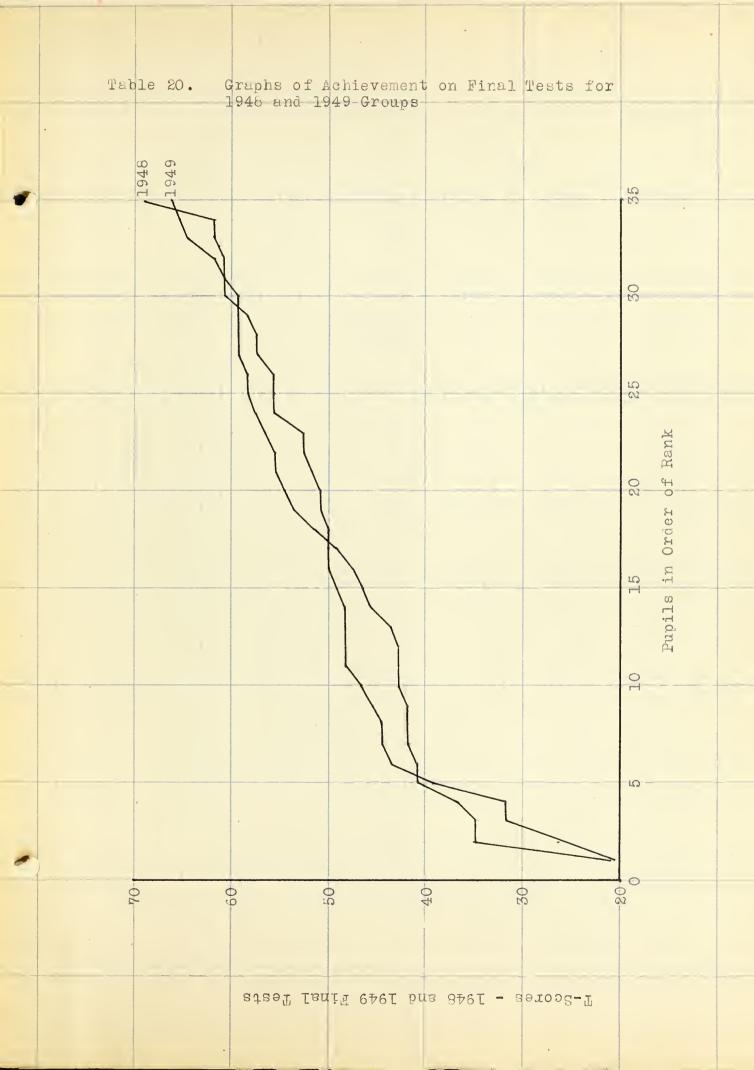
Table 18. Comparison of Scores and Significance of the Difference between the Means for the Lower Halves of the Groups on Final Tests

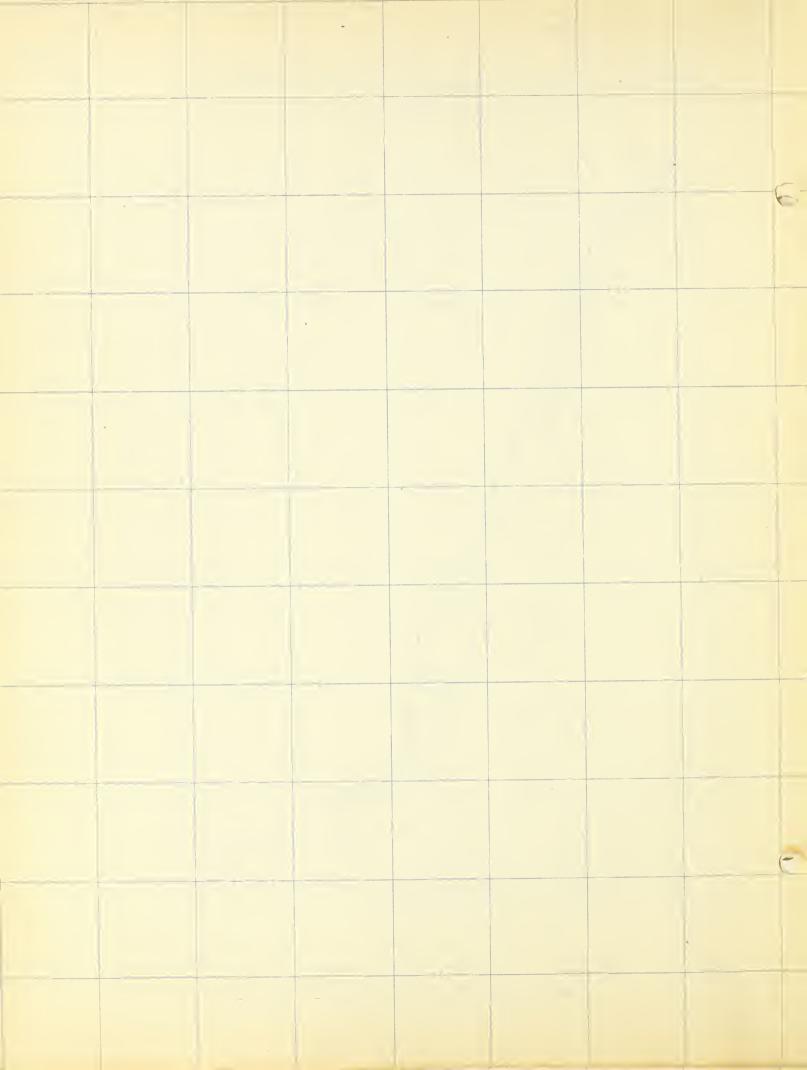
Lower H	Elf of l		Lower H	alf of l	949 Group
Score	đ	d^2	Score	ã	a ²
67 64 63 62 60	15 12 11 10 8	225 144 121 100 64	63 61 5 7 56 55	14 12 8 7 6	196 144 64 49 36
57 55 53 51 50	5 3 1 -1 -2	25 9 1 1	35 54 53 53 53	6 5 4 4 4	36 25 16 16 16
49 49 48 48 43	-3 -3 -4 -4 -9	9 9 16 16 81	49 49 48 43 35	0 0 -1 -6 -14	0 0 1 36 196
41 26 8860 52.1	-11 -26	121 676 17 1622 95.4	$ \begin{array}{r} 35 \\ 29 \\ \hline 17 8280 \\ 48.7 \end{array} $	-14 -20	196 400 17 1427 83.94
Mean =	52	Sigma = 9.75	Mean = 4	19 S	sigma = 9.1
Się	gma _D of Lo	wer Halves			
	$M_{48} - M_{49} = 52 - 49 = 3.0$ Sigma = $\frac{9.75}{\sqrt{17}} = 2.36$		$\frac{D}{\text{Sigma}_{D}} = \frac{3.0}{3.2} = .93$		3
M ₂			From Garrett Table 34 at .9		
Sigma	$=\frac{9.15}{\sqrt{17}}$	= 2.22 6 ² + 2.22 ²	Chances ar	re 83 in	100
Sigma _D	$= \sqrt{2.30}$	62 + 2.222	,		
SigmaD	= 3.2				

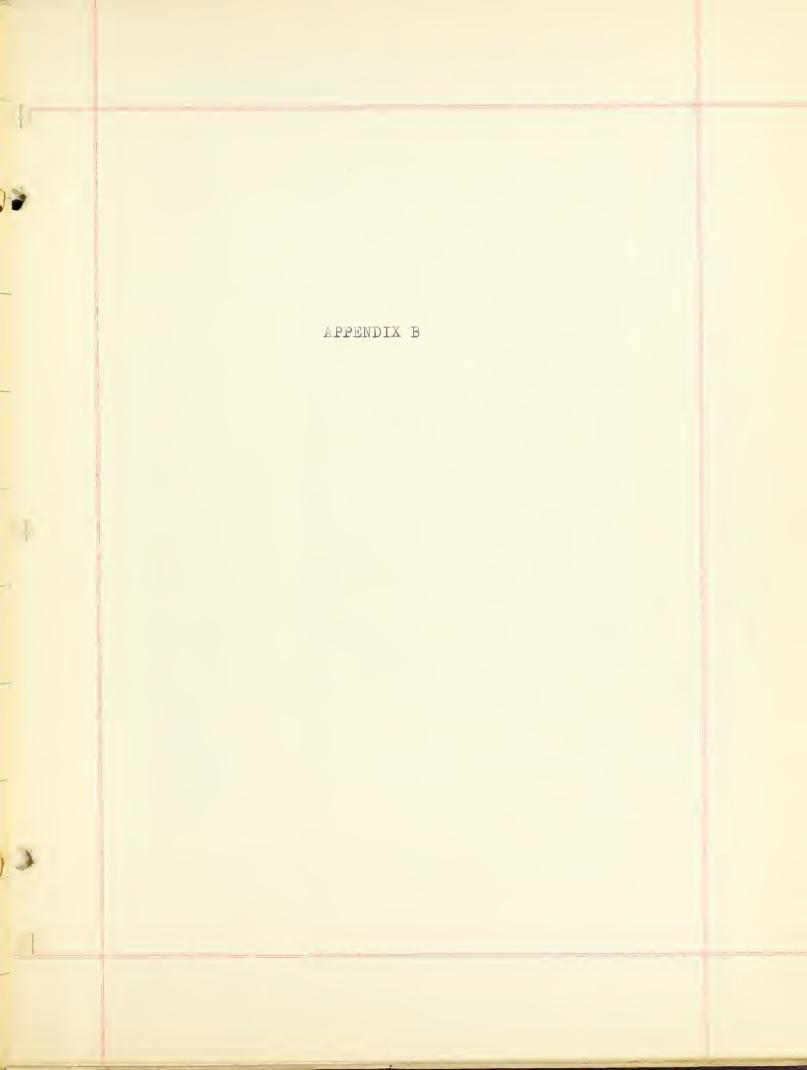


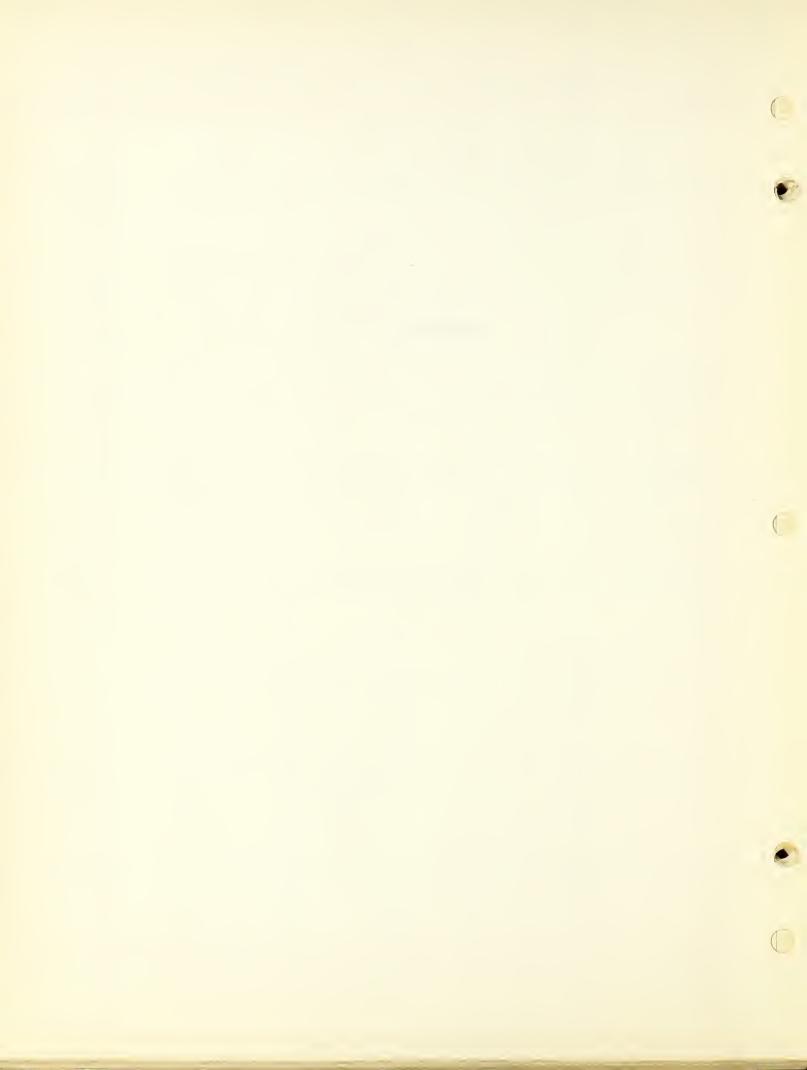


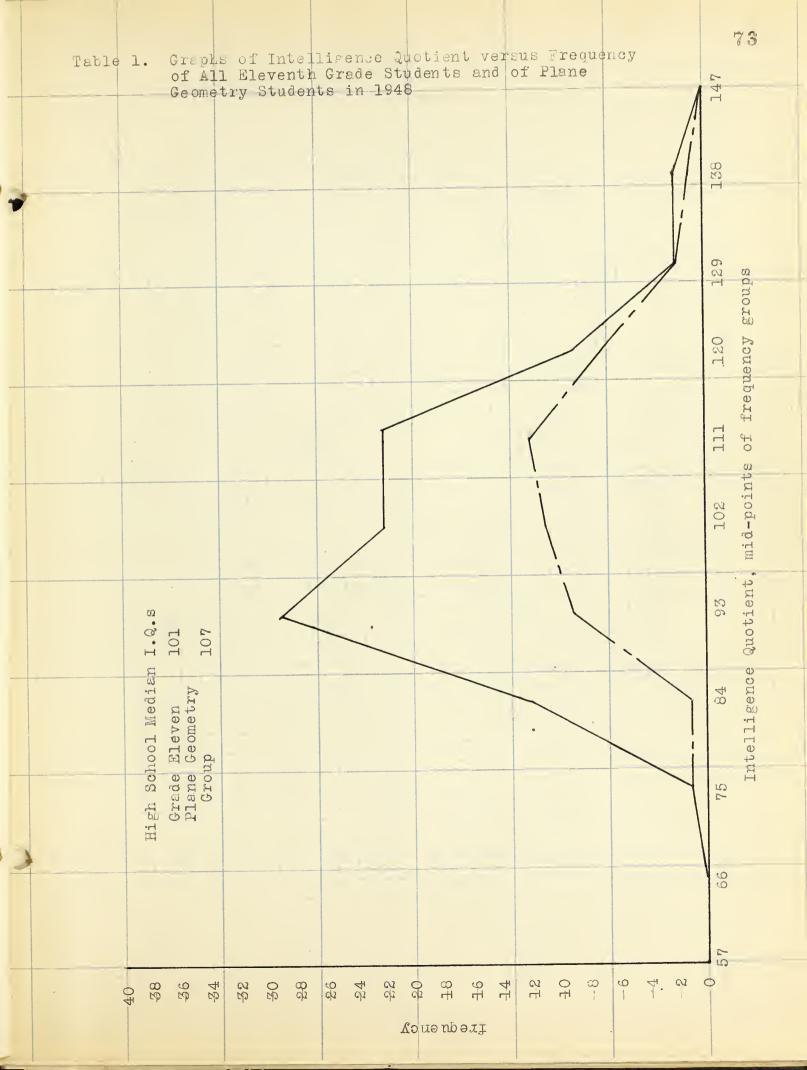


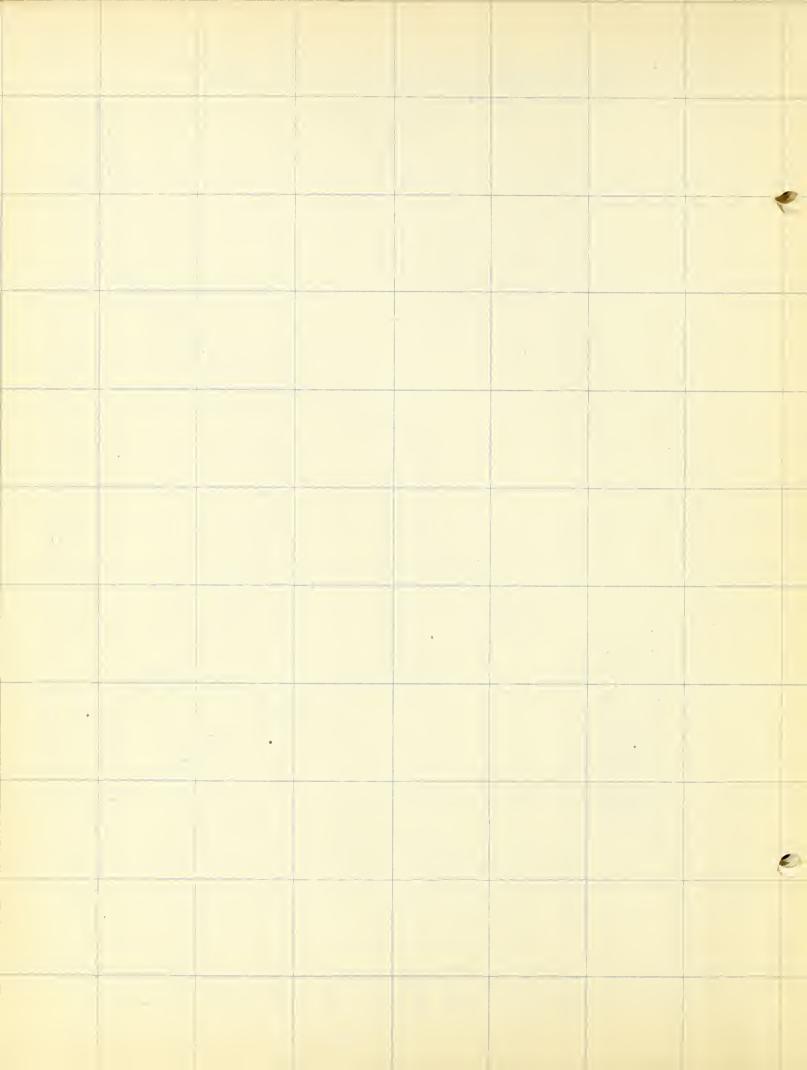


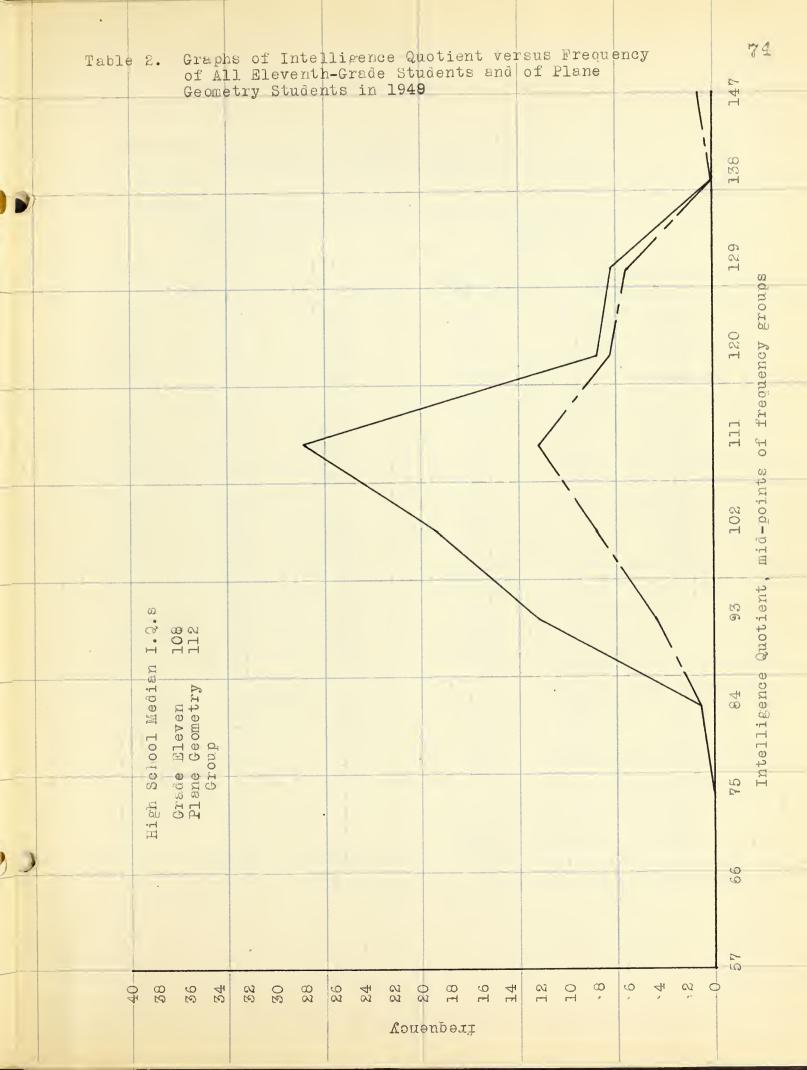












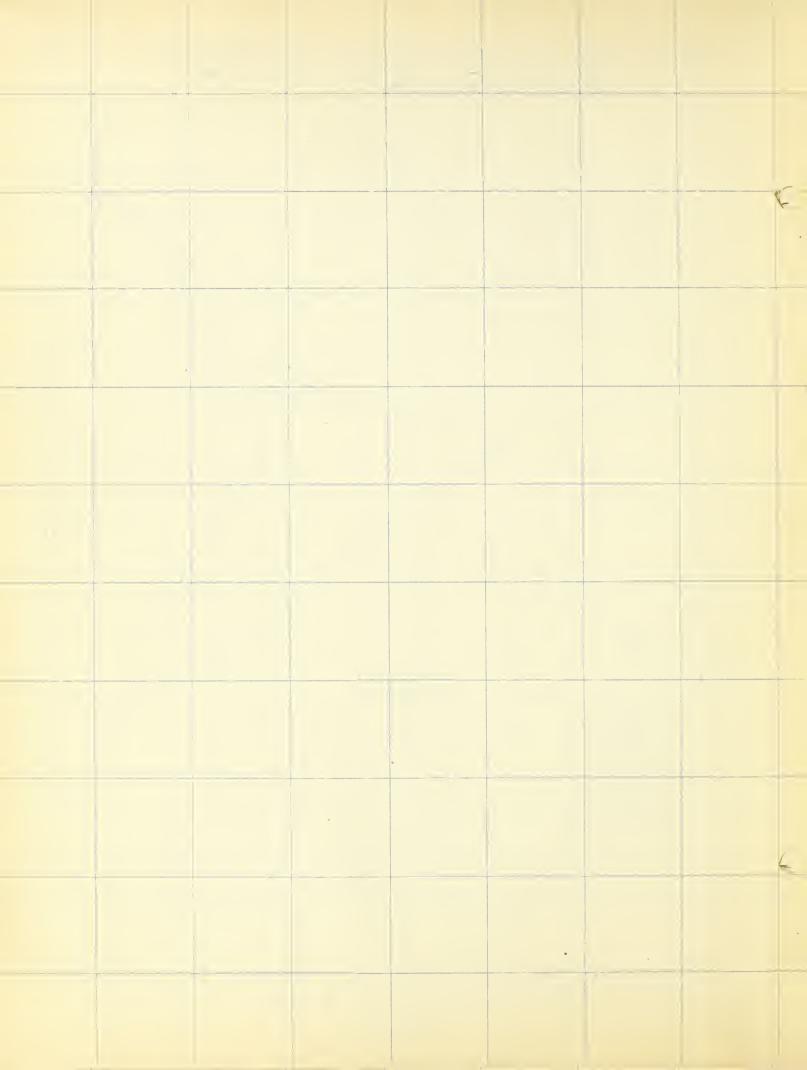


Table 3. Data Used in Calculating Mean Intelligence Quotient and Sigma of Unequated Groups

	1948 Grou			1949 Groups	0
IQ	đ	a ²	IQ	đ	d ²
140 128 128 124 122	35 23 23 19 17	1225 529 529 361 289	143 132 129 126 125	31 20 17 14 13	961 400 289 196 169
121 120 117 117 116	16 15 12 12 11	256 225 144 144 121	125 125 124 124 123	13 13 12 12	169 169 144 144 121
115 113 112 111 111	10 8 7 6 6	100 64 49 36 36	122 119 118 117 115	10 7 6 5 3	100 49 36 25 9
110 110 110 109 109	5 5 5 4 4	25 25 25 16 16	113 112 112 112 112	1 0 0 0	1
108 107 106 106 104	3 2 1 1 -1	9 4 1 1	111 110 109 109 108	-1 -2 -3 -3	1 4 9 9 16
104 104 102 102 100	-1 -1 -3 -3 -5	1 9 9 25	107 106 106 106 102	-5 -6 -6 -6 -10	25 36 36 36 100

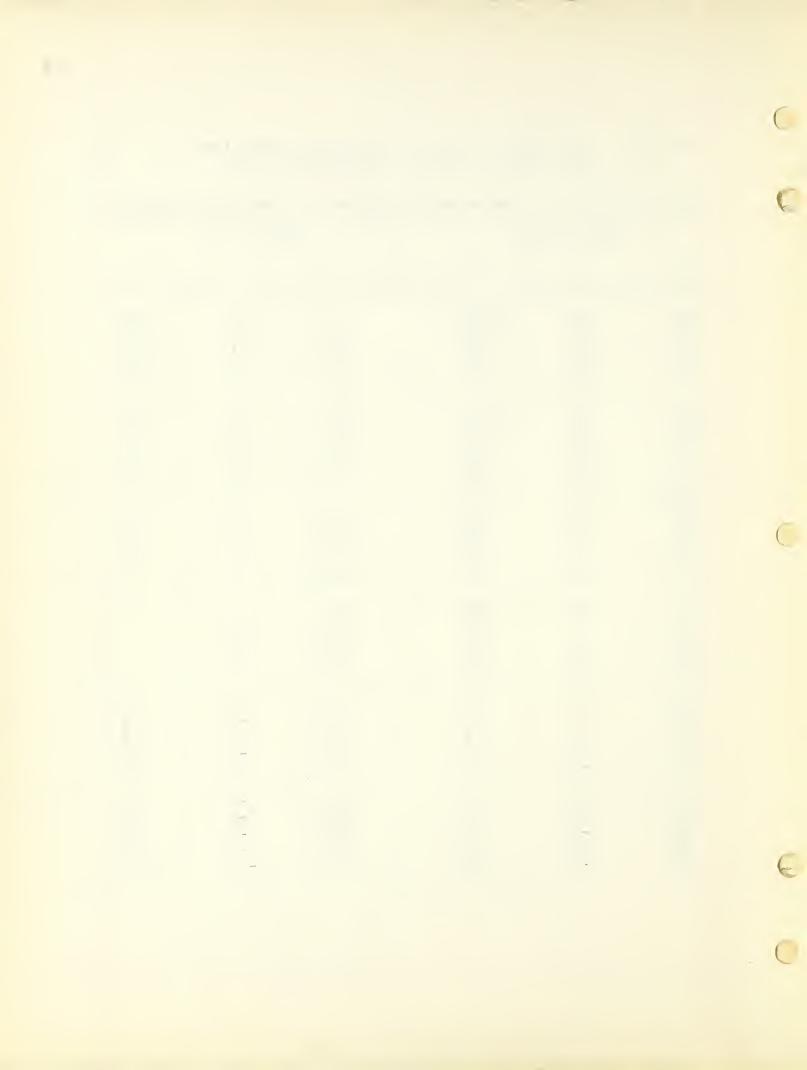


Table 3. (continued)

	1948 Gro		194	9 Groups	
IQ	đ	ā ²	IQ	đ	đ ²
98 98 98 97 97	-7 -7 -7 -8 -8	49 49 49 64	102 100 98 98 97	-10 -12 -14 -14 -15	100 144 196 196 225
97 97 96 95 94 92 90 88 78	-8 -8 -9 -10 -11 -13 -15 -17 -27	64 64 81 100 121 169 225 289 729	97 95 95 86	-15 -17 -17 -26	225 289 289 576
4601		6393	4370		5594

Mean = 44 $\frac{104.56}{4601.00}$

Mean = 105

Sigma = $\sqrt{145.29}$ = 12.05 44 6393.00

Sigma = 12.1

Mean = $39 \frac{112.05}{4370.00}$

Mean = 112

Sigma = $\frac{V_{143.43}}{5594.00}$ = 11.98

Sigma = 12.0



Table 4. Data Used in Calculating Mean Intelligence
Quotient and Sigma of Equated Groups - First Trial

	1948 Grou	ps	19	949 Groups	
IQ	đ	a ²	IQ	đ	d ²
140 128 128 124 122	34 22 22 18 16	1156 484 484 324 256	129 126 125 125 125	15 12 11 11	225 144 121 121 121
121 120 117 117 116	15 14 11 11	225 196 121 121 100	124 124 123 122 119	10 10 9 8 5	100 100 81 64 25
115 113 112 111 111	97655	81 49 36 25 25	118 117 115 113 112	4 3 1 -1 -2	16 9 1 1
110 110 110 109 109	4 4 4 3 3	16 16 16 9 9	112 112 112 111 110	-2 -2 -2 -3 -4	4 4 4 9 16
108 107 106 106 104	2 1 0 0 -2	4 1 4	109 109 108 107 106	-5 -5 -6 -7 -8	25 25 36 49 64
104 104 102 102 100	-2 -2 -4 -4 -6	4 16 16 36	106 106 102 102 100	-8 -8 -12 -12 -14	64 64 144 144

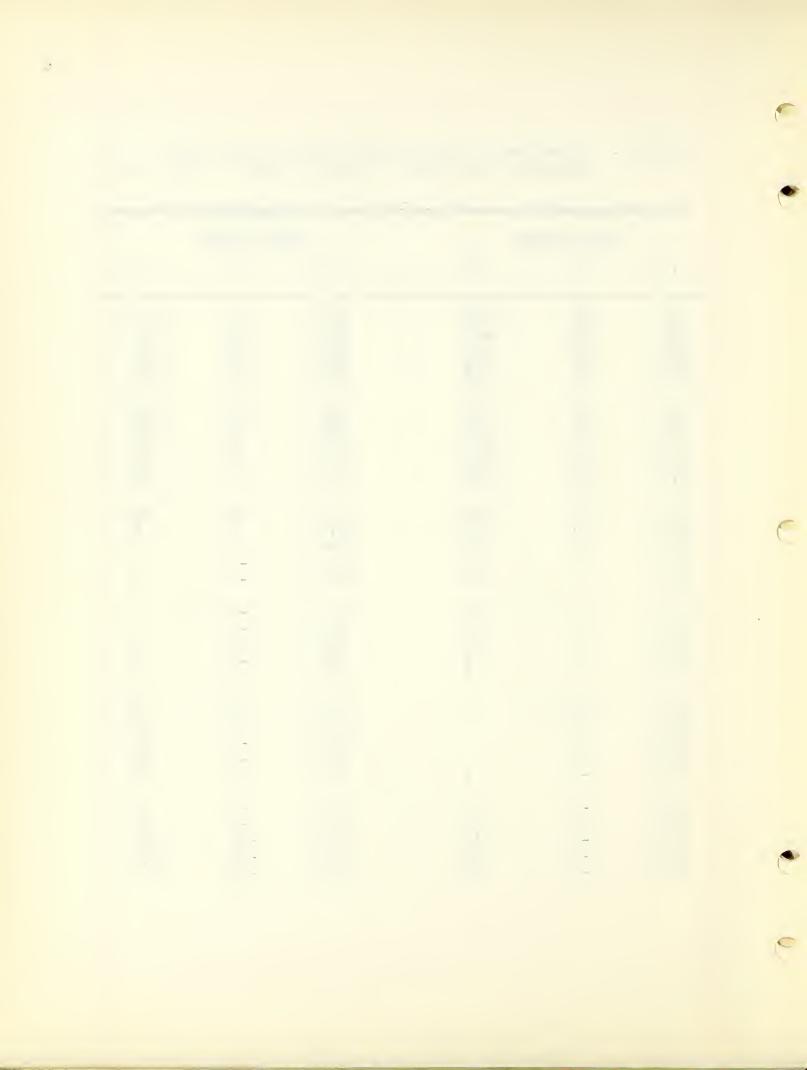


Table 4. (continued)

1948 Groups			1949 Groups			
IQ	đ	d :	IQ	đ	a ²	
98 98 98 97 97	-8 -8 -8 -9	64 64 64 81 81	98 98 97 97 95	-16 -16 -17 -17 -19	256 256 289 289 361	
97 97 96 95 94 4253	-9 -9 -10 -11 -12	81 81 100 121 144 4715	95 86 4207	-19 -28	361 784 4577	

Mean = 40 $\frac{106.32}{4253.00}$

Mean = 106

Sigma = $\sqrt{117.87}$ = 10.86 40 $\sqrt{4715.00}$

Sigma = 10.9

Mean = 37 $\frac{113.64}{4207.00}$

Mean = 114

Sigma = $\sqrt{123.7}$ = 11.14 37 $\sqrt{4577.00}$

Sigma = 11.1

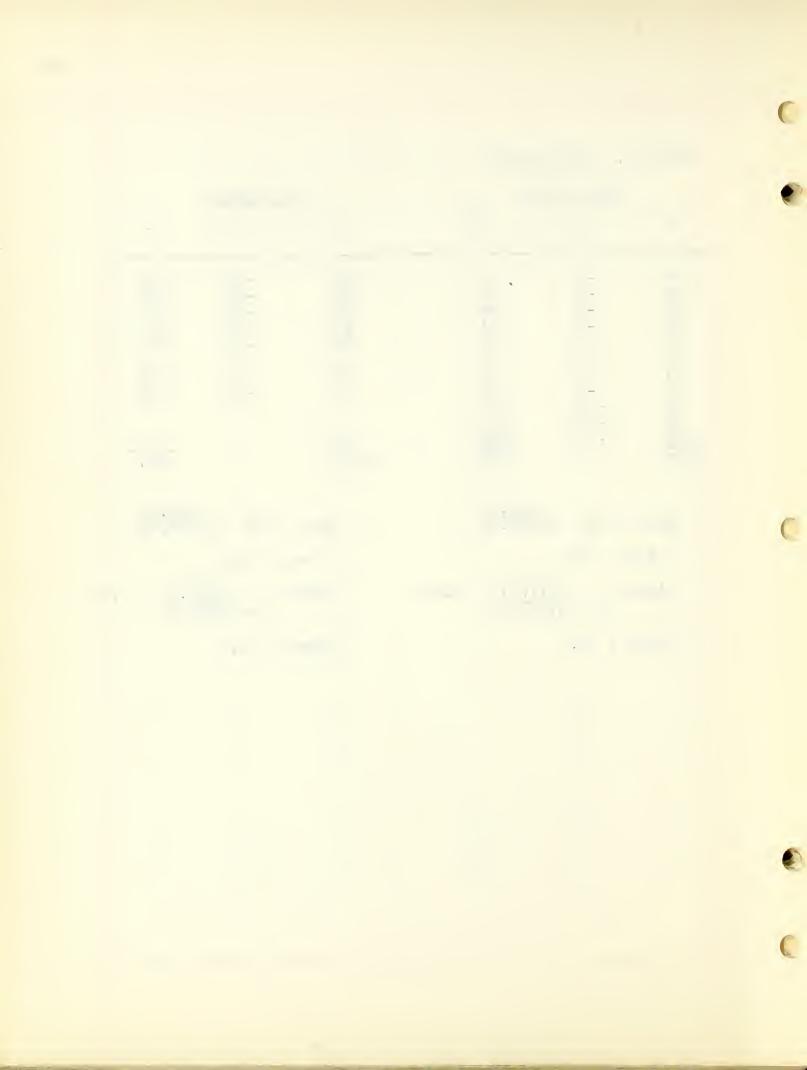


Table 5. Data Used in Calculating Mean Intelligence Quotient and Sigma of Equated Groups

	1948 Grou	ips	19	49 Groups	
IQ	đ	å ²	IQ	đ	d ²
140 128 128 124 122	32 20 20 16 14	1024 400 400 256 196	125 125 125 124 124	15 15 15 14 14	225 225 225 196 196
121 120 117 117 116	13 12 9 9	169 144 81 81 64	123 122 119 118 117	13 12 9 8 7	169 144 81 64 49
115 113 112 111 111	7 5 4 3 3	49 25 16 9	115 113 112 112 112	5 3 2 2 2	25 9 4 4 4
110 110 110 109 109	2 2 2 1 1	4 4 1 1	112 111 110 109 109	2 1 0 -1 -1	4 1 1
108 107 106 106 104	0 -1 -2 -2 -4	1 4 4 16	108 107 106 106 106	-2 -3 -4 -4 -4	4 9 16 16 16
104 104 102 102 100	-4 -4 -6 -6 -8	16 16 36 36 64	102 102 100 98 98	-8 -8 -10 -12 -12	64 64 100 144 144

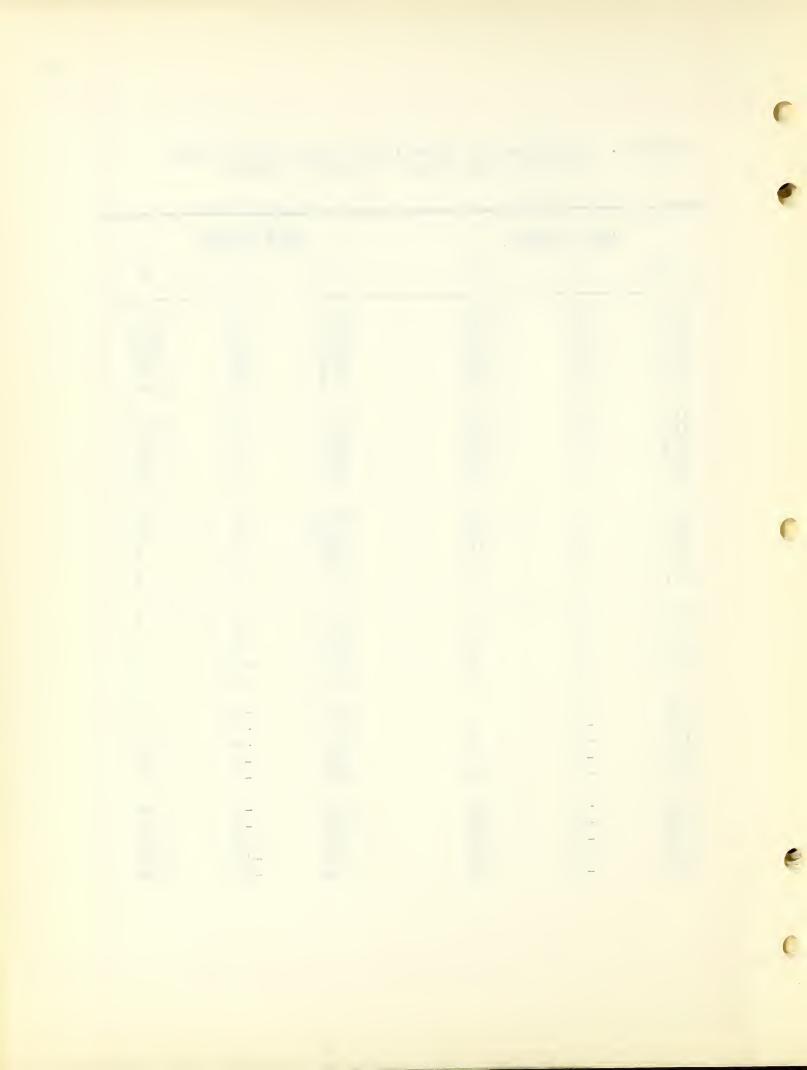


Table 5. (continued)

	1948 Grou	ps	1949	9 Groups	
IQ	đ	d ²	IQ	đ	d ²
98 98 98 97 <u>97</u> 3774	-10 -10 -10 -11 -11	100 100 100 121 121 3672	97 97 95 95 86 3840	-13 -13 -15 -15 -24	169 169 225 225 576 3568
Mean =	= 35 <u>10</u>	7.8 4.0	Mean =	109 35 3840	
Mean	1 = 108		Mean	= 110	
Sigma	$=$ $\frac{\sqrt{104}}{35\sqrt{3672}}$	<u>.9</u> = 10.24	Sigma =	V101. 35 3568.	9 = 10.09
Sigma	= 10.2		Sigma =	10.1	

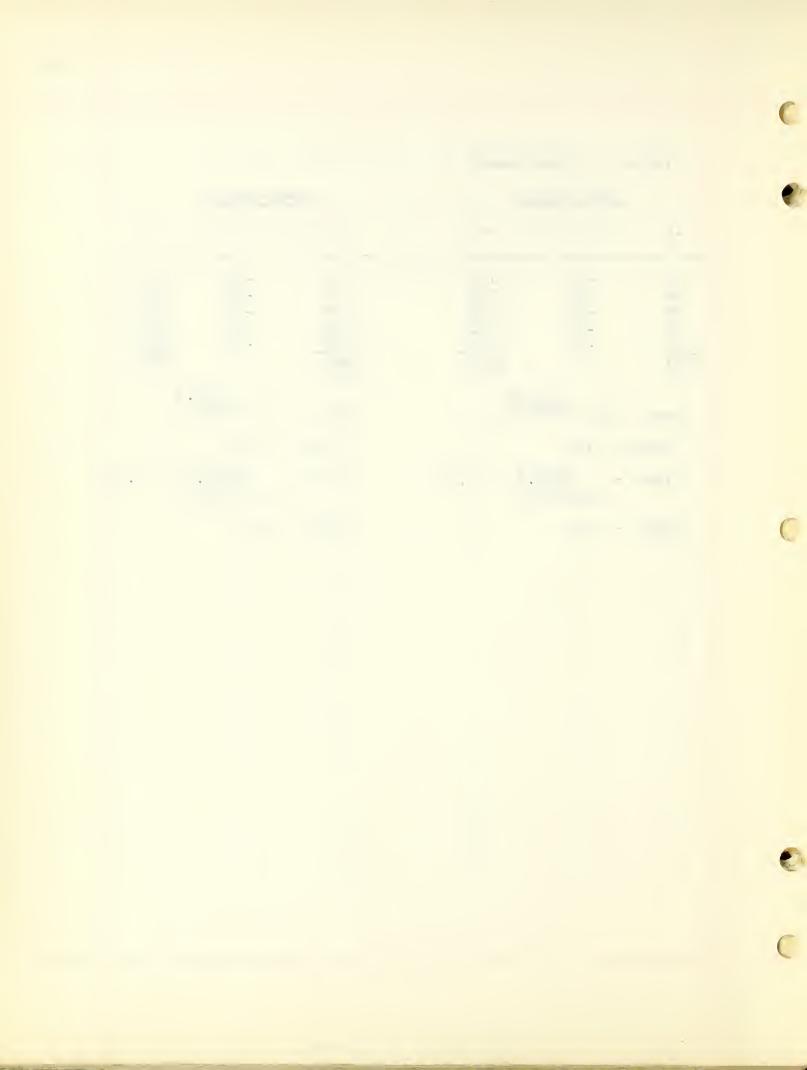


Table 6. Intelligence Quotients and Previous Marks in Mathematics of Pupils in 1948 Group

Pupil	IQ	Previo	us Marks Grad 8	in Mathema	tics 10	Av.
Tapit	<u> </u>				10	
1 2 3 4 5	140 128 128 124 122	A B+ B+ na* C+	A A B C B	B B+ B C+ B	C+ B+ B C	B+ B+ B C C+
6 7 8 9 10	121 120 117 117 116	B B+ D+ na B	A A C+ na B	B B D+ A	C+ C+ C B+ A	B C A B+
11 12 13 14 15	115 113 112 111 111	B C B B na	B B B+ C na	C + B B+ C B+	C + B A C B	C+ C+ B+ C
16 17 18 19 20	110 110 110 109 109	A C C C C	A C C C + C	B+ C D C+	BCCCC	B+ C C C+ C
21 22 23 24 25	108 107 106 106 104	B- C B C+ D	C C B C+	C C B B C+	C + B	C C B C+ D+
26 2 7 28 29 30	104 104 102 102 100	na B na B D+	na B- na B	B C C+ C	B D B D	B C C+ C+ D+

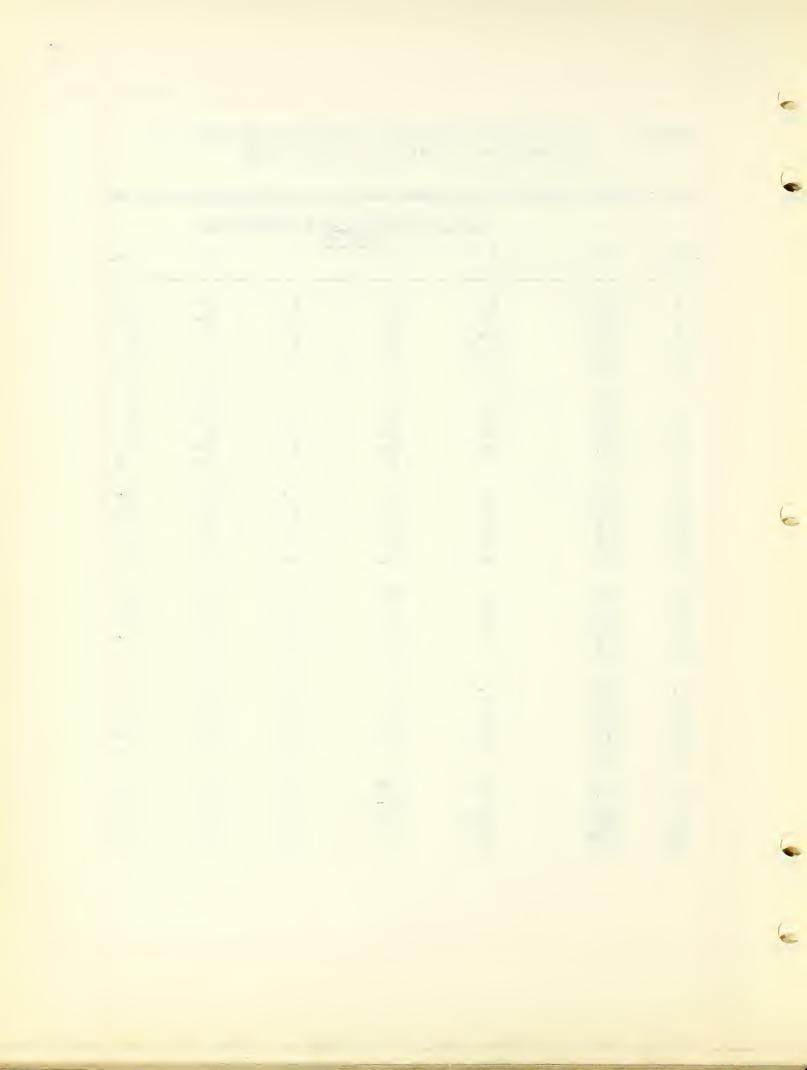


Table 6 (continued)

Previous Marks in Mathematics

			Grad	des		
Pupil	IQ	7	8	9	10	Av.
31 32 33 34 35	98 98 98 97 97	D D D+ D na	C + C D na	C C D+ D+ D	D C D D D+ Mean =	D+ C D+ D D

*na indicates not available

In average letter grades, following conversion scale was used:

A = 4.0; B + = 3.5; B = 3.0; C + = 2.5; C = 2.0; D + = 1.5; D = 1.0

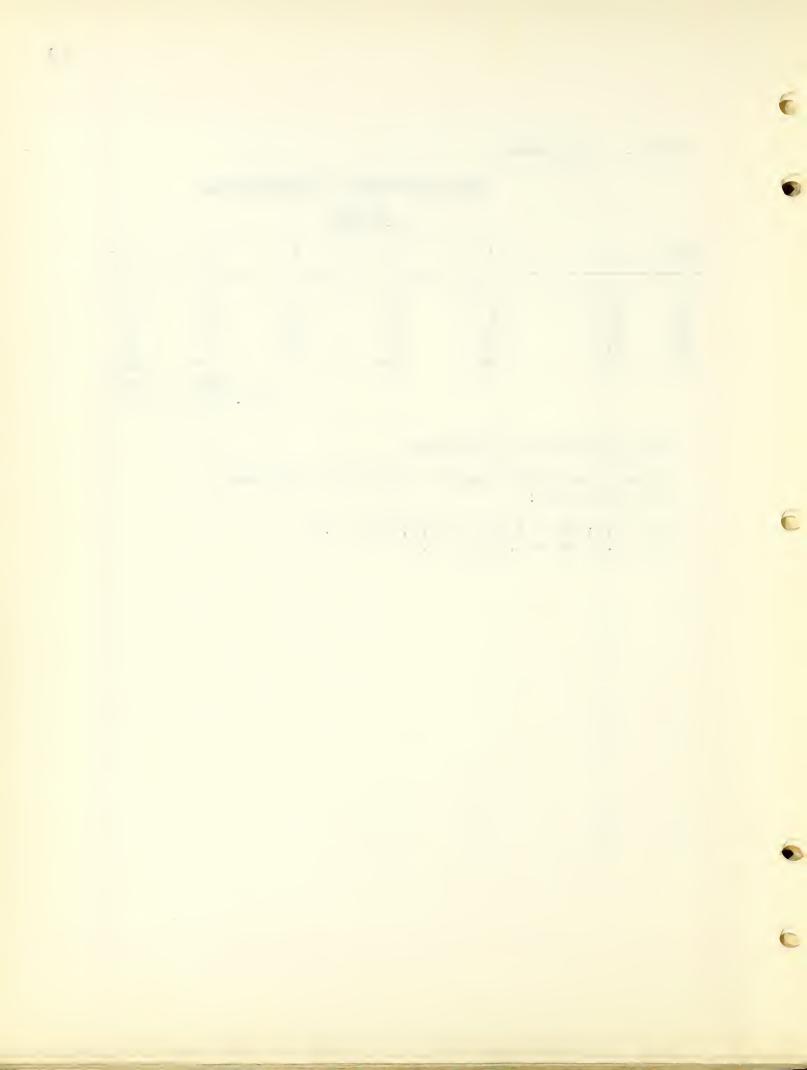


Table 7. Intelligence Quotients and Previous Marks in Mathematics of Pupils in 1949 Group

		Prev	ious Marks i Grade		tics	
Pupil	IQ	7	8	9	10	Av.
1 2 3 4 5	125 125 125 124 124	B+ na na A B	A B+ B A B+	A A D A B+	A B C B+ B	A B+ C A B
6 7 8 9 10	123 122 119 118 117	A B na C+ C+	C+ C+ na C+	B+ C+ C+ C	B C C+ C	B C+ C+ C
11 12 13 14 15	11.5 113 112 112 112	B + B A	C C B C B	B B C+ C+	C B C C+ C+	C+ C+ B C+ B
16 17 18 19 20	112 111 110 109 109	B C C B+ A	B+ D+ C+ A	B+ C+ C B	B C+ C+ B	B C C B+
21 22 23 24 25	108 107 106 106 106	B D B D C	B C B D C+	C + B A D D+	C C+ B D E	C+ C B D+
26 2 7 28 29 30	102 102 100 98 98	na C+ B na C+	na C+ C+ B	D+ C+ C C	E D D+ C	D C C+

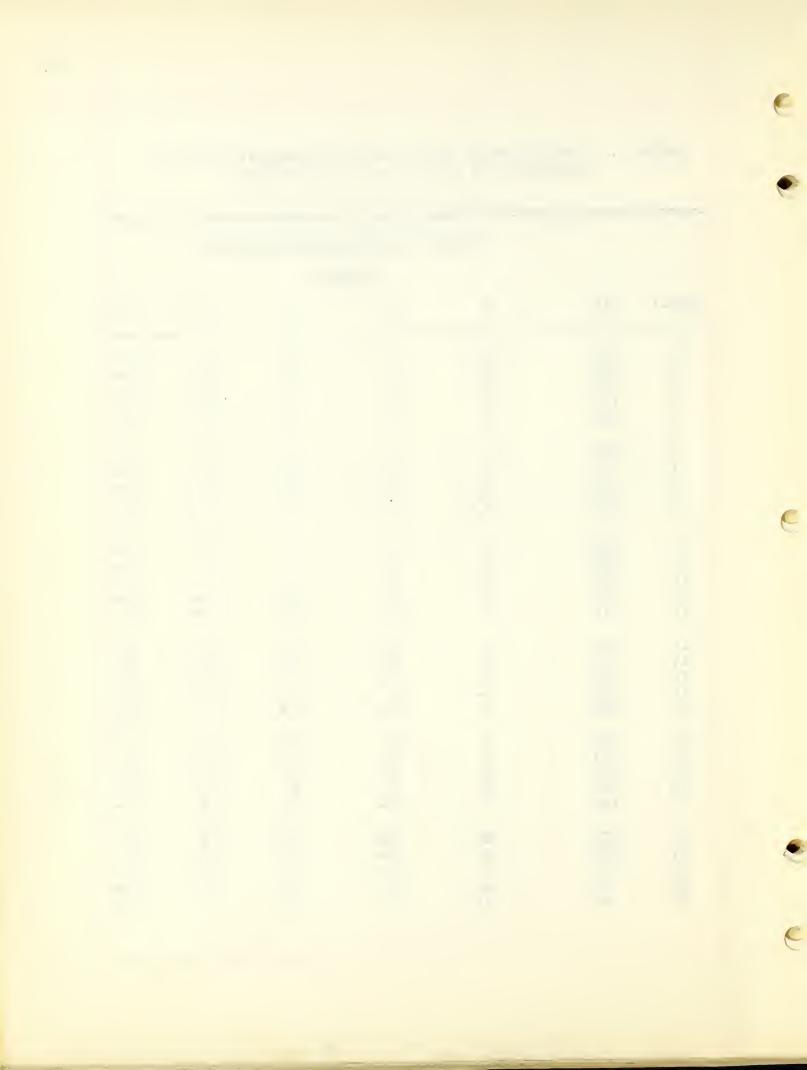


Table 7 (continued)

Previous Marks in Mathematics

	Grades					
Pupil	IQ	7	8	9	10	Av.
31 32 33 34 35	97 97 95 95 86	A C na B C-	B C+ na C	A D D+ C C+	A D+ D B C+ Mean	B+ D+ D C+ C+ C+ 1 = 2.471

na indicates not available

In averaging letter grades, following conversion scale was used:

A = 4.0; B + = 3.5; B = 3.0; C + = 2.5; C = 2.0; D + = 1.5; D = 1.0

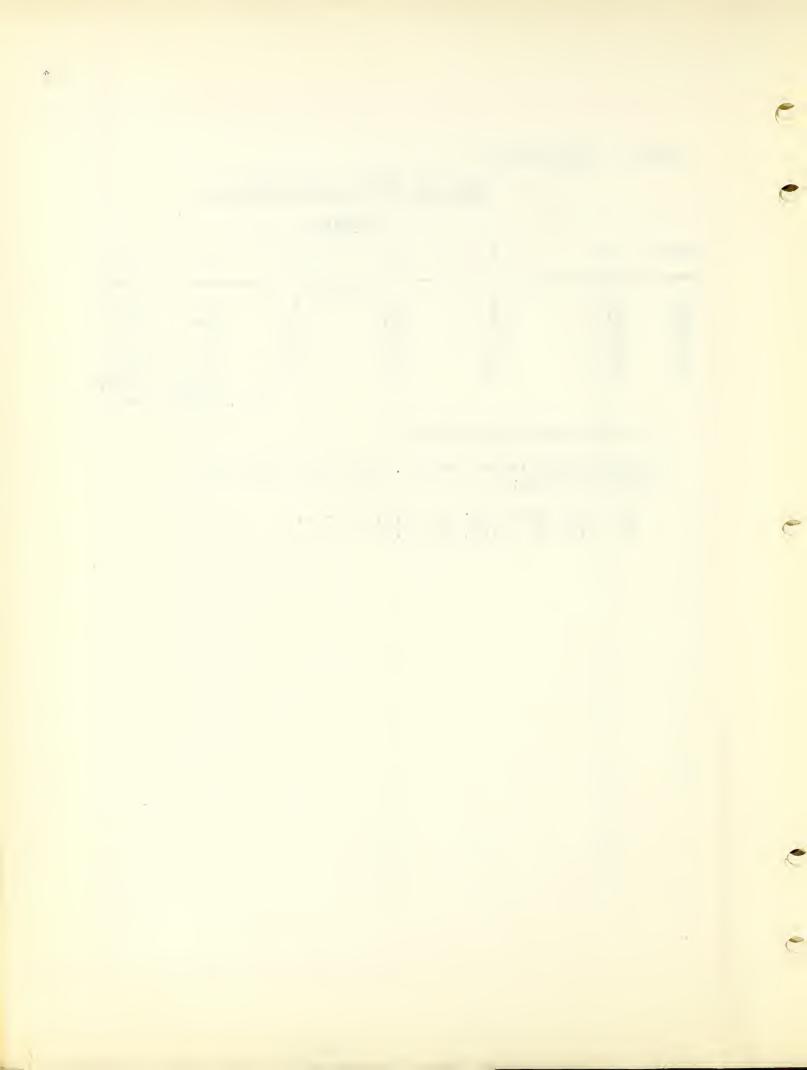


Table 8. Data from Boston University School and College Relations Cooperative Testing Service Vocational Guidance Battery for Pupils in 1948 Group

Pupil	Intel.	Chron.	Problem	Reading	Spatial
	Quot.	Age	Solving	Comp.	Relations
1 2 3 4 5	140 128 128 124 122	16-7 15-10 16-5 16-10 16-5	11 11 9 9	224 184 171 169 164	61 44 56 51 58
6 7 8 9 10	121 120 117 117 116	16-8 15-6 16-1 16-6 15-8	10 5 7 9	186 183 177 173 180	56 45 42 54 49
11	115	16-6	6	161	38
12	113	16-7	9	200	35
13	112	16-3	4	182	55
14	111	16-4	7	188	44
15	111	15-11	4	160	49
16	110	16-7	9	169	51
17	110	16-3	8	182	46
18	110	15-9	7	146	32
19	109	16-7	6	121	36
20	109	15-11	5	167	47
21	108	15-11	5	181	28
22	107	16-2	7	170	44
23	106	15-11	5	199	53
24	106	15-11	8	163	60
25	104	15-11	8	125	57
26	104	15-8	5	157	40
27	104	16-2	11	126	46
28	102	16-6	5	148	28
29	102	16-1	6	141	37
30	100	15-2	8	143	50

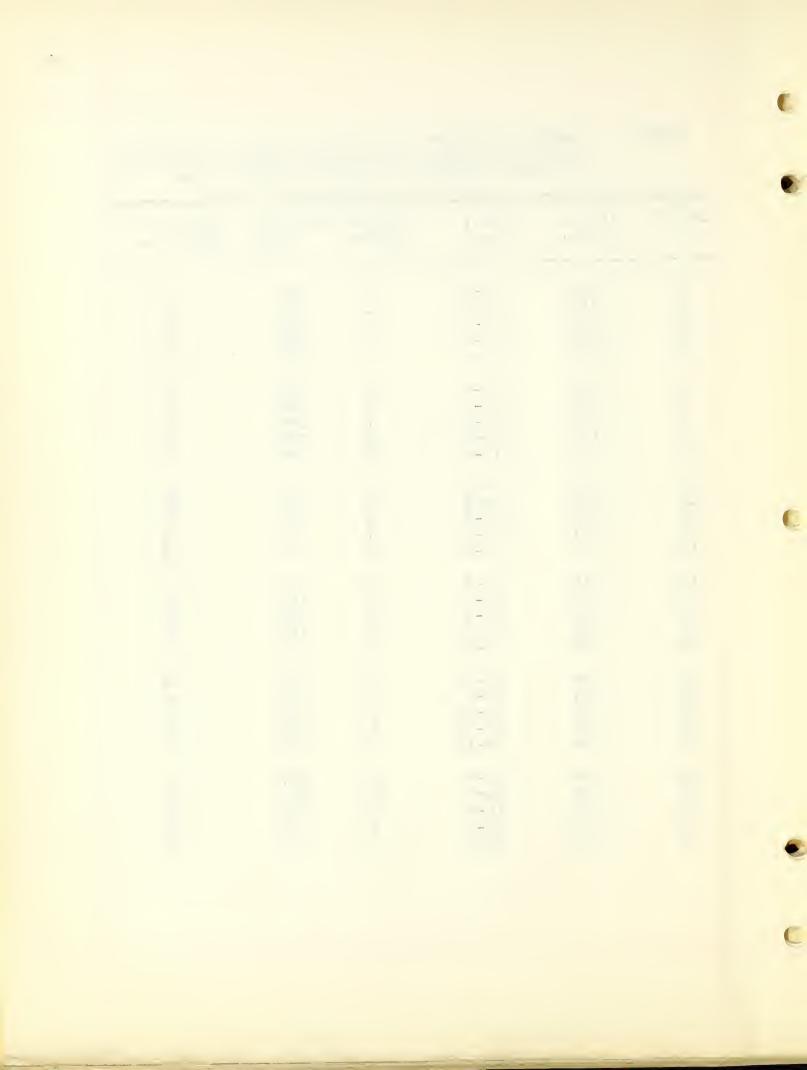


Table 8 (continued)

Pupil	Intel. Quot.		Problem Solving	Reading Comp.	Spatial Relations
31 32 33 34 35	98 98 98 97 97	16-8 16-6 15-10 16-7 16-3	7 5 5 4 5	135 149 156 120 167	43 47 34 46 43
Range	97-140	(15-2)(16-1	0) 4-11	120-224	28-61
Median	110	16-3	7	167	46
Mean	108	16-2	7	165	46
Sigma	10.2				



Table 9. Data from Boston University School and College Relations Cooperative Testing Service Vocational Guidance Battery for Pupils in 1949 Group

Pupil	Intel.	Chron.	Problem	Reading	Spatial
	Quot.	Age	Solving	Comp.	Relations
1	125	16-1	10	169	46
2	125	16-7	10	161	50
3	125	15-8	8	195	47
4	124	16-0	12	219	37
5	124	15-10	7	193	45
6 7 8 9	123 122 119 118 117	17-2 15-10 16-0 16-8 15-5	4 7 8 7 5	200 163 171 161 144	36 47 40 41 44
11	115	16-5	8	190	39
12	113	15-10	5	178	44
13	. 112	15-11	6	153	39
14	112	16-5	5	164	48
15	112	16-1	4	170	33
16	112	16-1	7	162	55
17	111	16-5	6	168	30
18	110	16-1	8	168	46
19	109	15-10	7	193	54
20	109	17-6	8	157	35
21	108	16-2	6	232	36
22	107	15-7	8	140	44
23	106	15-10	7	162	39
24	106	16-5	4	125	26
25	106	17-0	4	105	35
26	102	16-4	7	142	39
27	102	15-7	5	178	42
28	100	15-11	8	172	33
29	98	17-0	8	135	43
30	98	16-1	3	130	25

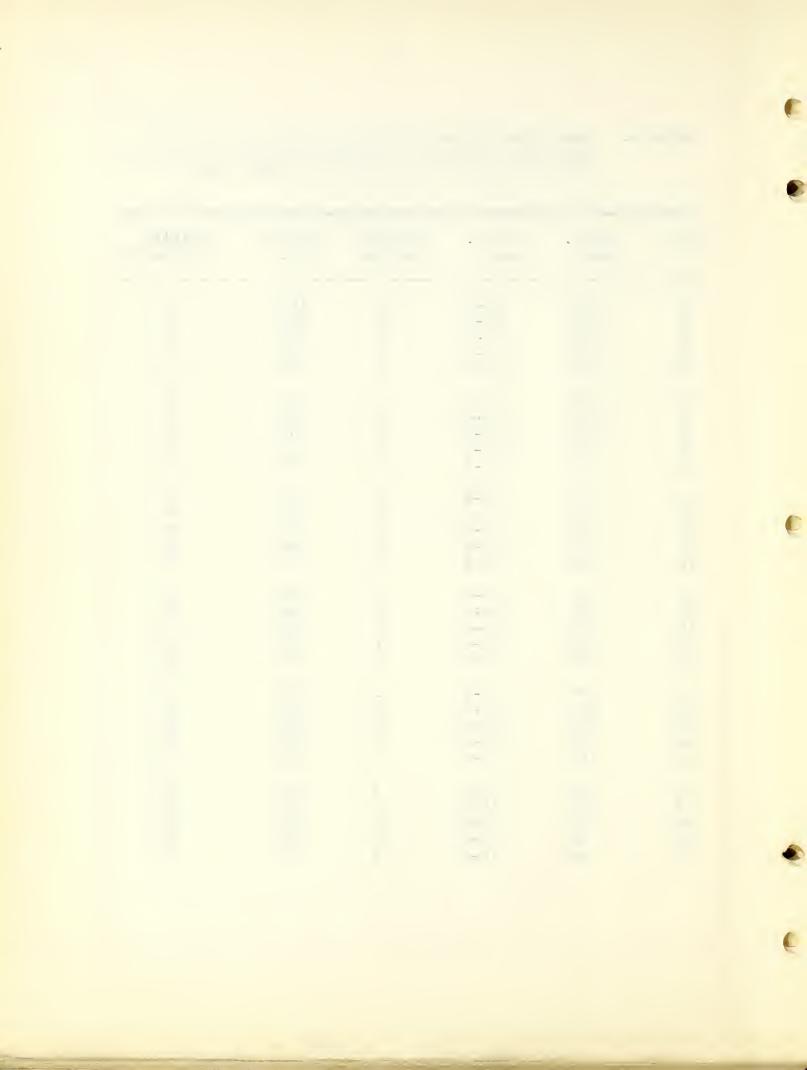
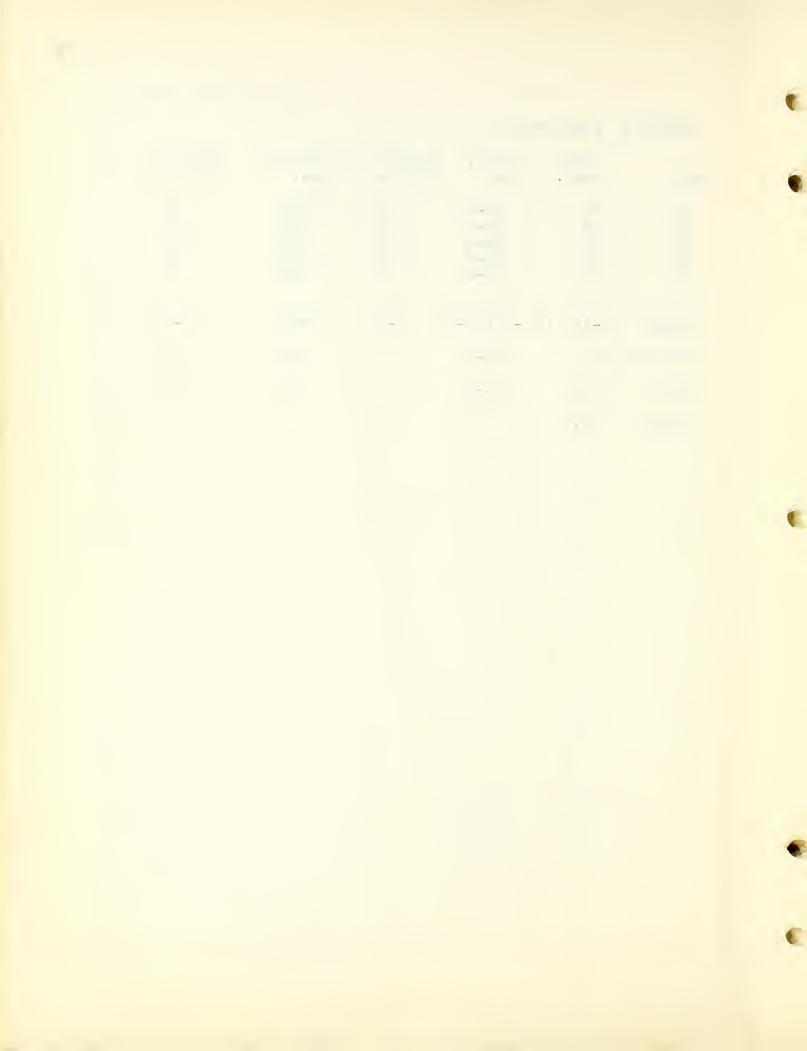
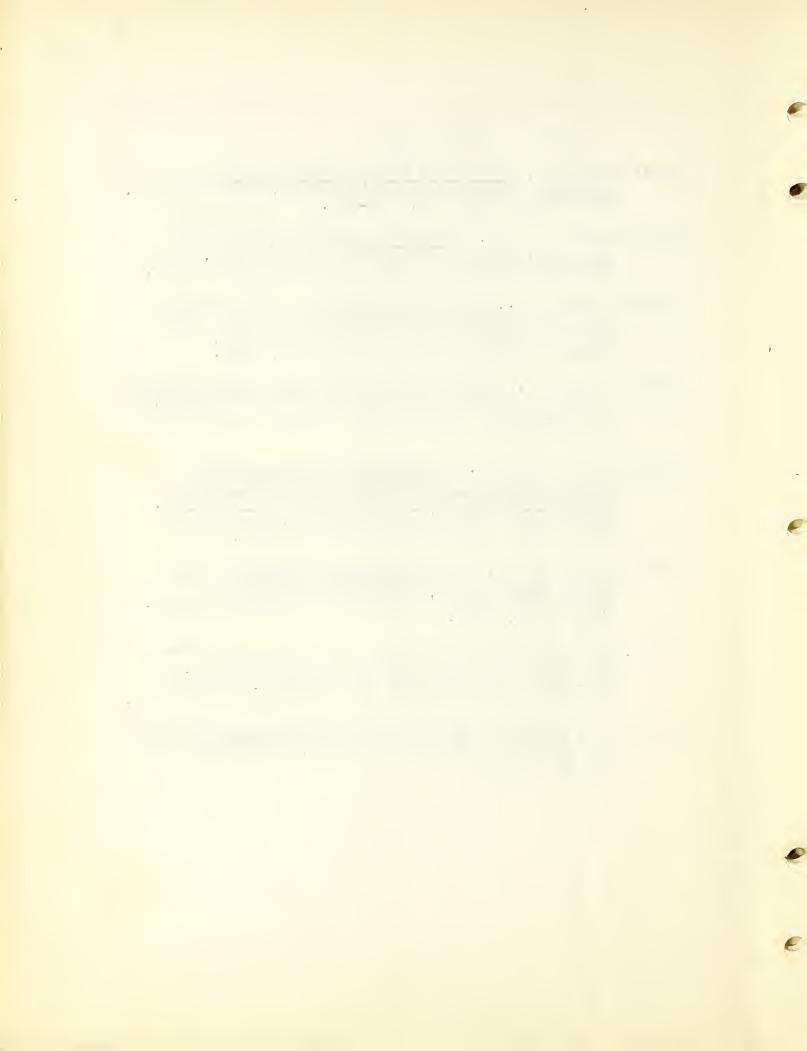


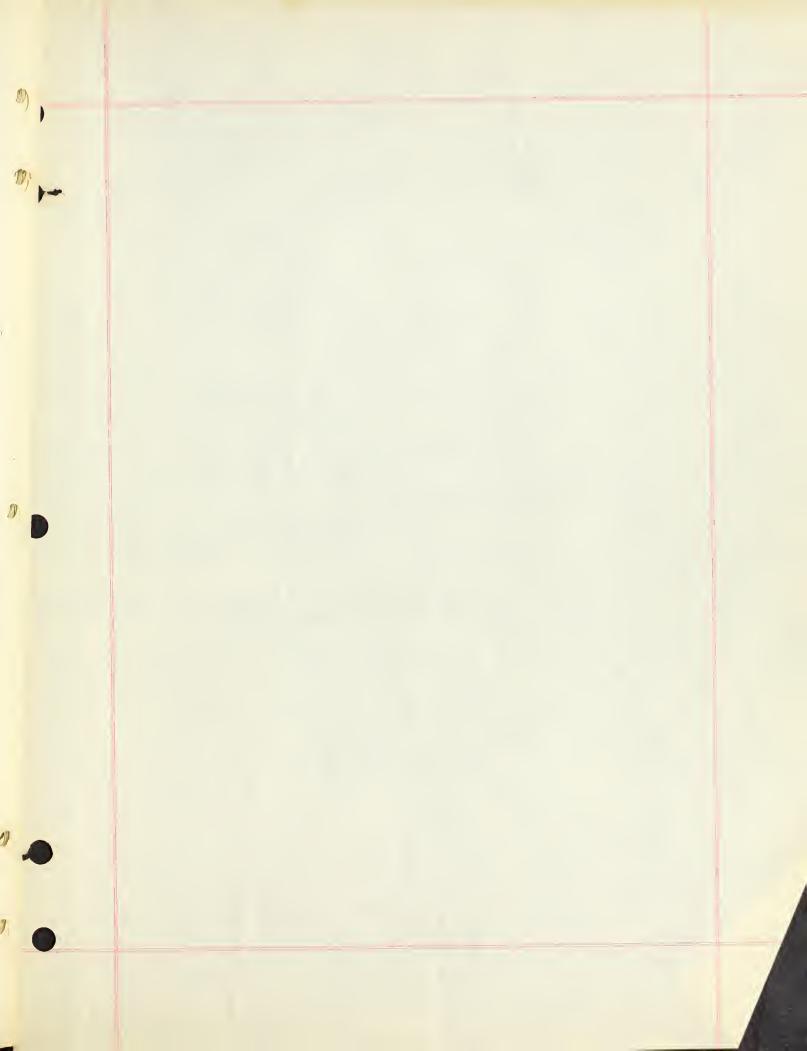
Table 9	e (cont	inued)			
Pupil	Intel Quot.	. Chron. Age	Problem Solving	Reading Comp.	Spatial Relations
31 32 33 34 35	97 97 95 95 86	16-6 16-7 18-4 15-9 15-10	6 4 5 6 4	162 135 97 141 145	42 33 27 41 33
Range	86-125	(15-5)(18-4)	3-10	97-232	25-55
Median	110	16-1	7	162	40
Mean	110	16-0	7	165	40
Sigma	10.1				

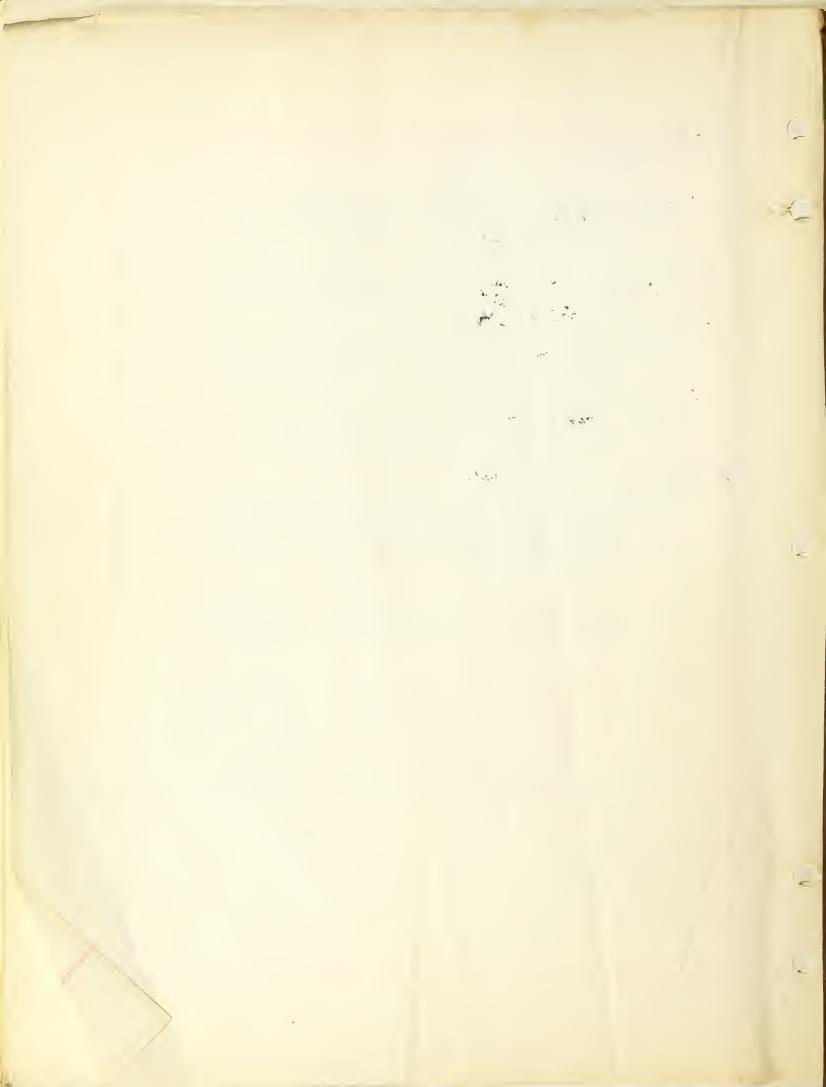


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